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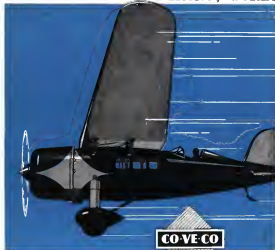


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THE OLDEST AMERICAN AERONAUTICAL MAGAZINE

A MONTHLY PUBLICATION ESTABLISHED 1914

EDWARD F. WARNER, Editor

Number 17 . . . October 19, 1929 . . . Volume 18

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THE OUTSTANDING SPORT AND TRAINING PLANE OF THE WORLD

Over-Production

THE BUILDERS of aircraft face a new problem. For the first time since they began to be liberally licensed and to produce airplanes in substantial quantities to meet the steady demand of a commercial market, misadjustment between production and sales has become the topic of serious concern. For the first time, they are in imminent danger of finding themselves with large numbers of unsellable machines on their hands.

There is nothing to be gained by evading that fact. Over-production is a definite industrial danger, as the automobile industry, and many others with it, learned to their sorrow in 1920 and 1921. It would be futile to disguise from ourselves that the estimates of 1929 aircraft production made at the beginning of the year, and used as the basis for plans for plant expansion and low employment of personnel, were in most cases far above the reality. Production schedules have had to be hurriedly reduced in some instances. Manufacturing companies confront the future with full confidence in the economic greatness of the airplane industry, but with uncertainty about the immediate rate of growth.

We have had the same lesson that the makers of automobiles had to learn, the same that causes sooner or later to almost every industry making a complex and somewhat expensive product for an extremely varied market—the lesson that the product does not automatically dispose of itself, converted into cash, as soon as the plant is dry. Every such industry necessarily must learn for itself that over-production is a practical possibility, not merely an economic likelihood. The aeronautical world will be fortunate if it learns that fact, and learns it thoroughly, at an early stage of its history, before production of standard models has required great expansion and before the mass of capital actually tied up in fixed plant has attained enormous proportions.

If the dangers of excess production be fully faced and met, two policies will be adopted. First, production schedules will be kept flexible to the limit of possibility,

the throttle on the factory ready to be pushed wider open or eased back at the slightest change in the reading of the barometer that forecasts consumption. Second, market analysis will be begun and continued with an unprecedented interest.

Aviation needs intelligently directed sales effort, and lots of it. The potential market for aircraft would cover some many times the present production as it could be completely explained, but before the market can be intelligently attacked it must be defined. Motor boats cannot be sold in the middle of a desert, nor electric fans in Greenland. Airplanes are of many types. For each type there is a definite limit upon the number of possible purchasers, able at once to afford such a machine and to make profitable use of it after buying. We have to determine the present level of those limits. When the market has been studied and classified in every respect, subject of detail, with the availability of each large group of prospects separately estimated, we shall be in a position to estimate next year's production and that of 1931 with some hope of approximating the truth, and so to lay our production schedules guarding against either excess or deficiency. We cannot do it by pulling our fingers down out of the maverick sky of our own hopes, nor by the simple and cheap assumption that merely because production has increased at an almost constant rate since 1925 to 1928 it will continue to progress along the same smooth, unbroken curve in the future.

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Airport Control

SAFETY IN AVIATION is the maknast of three factors: the man, the machine, and the conditions under which they operate. The Department of Commerce has done much, and is constantly doing its best, to insure and improve the quality of airplanes, power plants, pilots and mechanics. No one is doing anything except in a very few instances, conspicuously neglig-

used or faced with an exceptionally serious local problem, to protect the public against the difference use of dangerously inadequate ground facilities.

No one can survey "aerial service" and "jet rule" operations without alarm at the quality of the fields upon which some of them are based. It constitutes a menace and a scandal. Passengers are being carried every day out of fields that could not get the D4 rating, the lowest that the Department of Commerce offers. They could not move anywhere near it. They could not get an F13, if there were any such thing. This may say fields continue to be used for a considerable period without serious mishap is a great testimony to the skill of the pilots, but it does not excuse the taking of the chance. We need many, not the idea that any reason but may be an "airport." We must stamp out commercial operations from that kind of field.

Easily said, how how shall we do it? There are at least four ways of varying degrees of desirability and practicability. Number one calls for the amendment of the constitution of the United States to give the Department of Commerce full and explicit power to control interstate commercial aviation, as well as those of interstate commerce. That may be discussed without further comment. Number two adopts the course already followed in Oregon, providing for the licensing of all flying fields by some local authority and prohibiting the use of any not so licensed. A plus capable of having excellent results, so long as the local board is wise, intelligent and acoustically expert. Undoubtedly, it is impossible to expect that one of the cities of those who make up the Chicago Air Board will be willing to continue successfully the gratuitous performance of a rather hazardous service. They will withdraw, and in their place are likely to come political agencies of limited knowledge. None the less, state or municipal licensing is infinitely better than no control at all.

The third possibility is better yet. It leaves enforcement with local authority, technical discrimination with the technically competent personnel in Washington. It calls simply for the enactment by each state legislature of a law prohibiting the commercial use of any field not rated at least D4 by the Department of Commerce or the carriage of passengers off from any below C3 standard.

That would be the ideal, if forty-eight legislatures could all be brought to surrender their biased conceptions of their sacred state's right to make their own rules in their own way. Past experience with the effort to secure universal acceptance of Federal licensing of aircraft is not encouraging. There remains the fourth alternative.

The Department of Commerce can reach out and take the authority to remove airports. They can do indirectly what they are forbidden to do directly. The Department may not forbid the operation of unsafe fields. That would cause its constitutional powers. It can, however, forbid any licensed pilot to carry passengers out of an unlicensed field, or one with a rating not high enough

to be safe with the particular type of machine that he proposes to use. The Department can do that, and unless state legislative bodies show within the next six months a more intelligent interest in the subject than most of them have so far displayed, we wholeheartedly hope that the Department will.

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The Air Tour's Service to Aviation

ENTERING UPON its fifth annual performance, the National Air Tour movement labored to its original purpose. Lending scale the government-operated air field and a few specific and usually short-lived private activities, the organization of the Tours provided the evidence of commercial aviation in the United States. The American people were ignorant of aviation and its necessary possibilities. Few of them were conscious of the Air Mail's scope, or had any clear view of what sort of a world it was making. The National Air Tour in competition for the Ideal Ford Trophy, like the Golden Tour upon the highway many years before, was designed to furnish dramatic evidence of the reliability of a new vehicle. It was to bring visible proof, so all who would take the trouble to go to the flying field and see for themselves, that airplanes could start on schedule and serve on time, and they could do it not only now and then, by unusual special effort, but as a matter of daily routine. The object of improving the kind of airplanes was a secondary one.

The central aim remains unchanged. Four years have seen enormous progress in the aircraft industry and in aerially operations, but travelers by air still constitute but a small part of the population. The Air Tour is still needed as a reminder, especially in districts served by no regular air transport line, of the essential reliability of good airplanes run by good pilots. The record of the first four years has exceeded the fondest hopes of the original promoters. Their contribution to the development of American air-subsidies and to the prosperity of the American aircraft industry can hardly be overestimated.

There has been, and will be, strong temptation to increase the severity of the test very rapidly with the deliberate object of showing up minor defects in design and construction of the competing planes. Any such tendency should be resisted. The National Air Tour should not be planned, as automobile and motorcycle reliability runs frequently are, to break up or weed out all vehicles except the most rugged.

Information concerning the limits of the capacity of airplanes to stand alone is very useful to their designers but it can be covered in some other way. The Air Tour is for reliability and safety under reasonable conditions. Whatever modifications may be made in the conditions, or as the demands for finding the answers, those factors must be kept in the fore.

The Air Tour furnishes aerial proof that safety and reliability, with the hypodermic dream left out, sell almost a crowd. The Tour needs no starting exhibitors to help it along. If anyone doubts that perfectly straight flying, in sufficient quantity, can still be thrilling, let him reflect to his profit upon the fact that something like a couple of thousand thousand people are visiting the airports of thirty cities in these two weeks to see fifty standard commercial airplanes arrive and depart. That fact carries its own lesson.

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A Separate Corner for the Student

THE DEMAND for good commercial aviation has increased so fast that training schools cannot keep pace with it. At the same time there is a tremendous increase in private students. Until a year or so ago the army and navy schools, especially Brooks and Kelly fields at San Antonio, were the principal source of supply for transport pilots. Now the military schools cannot meet the demand, and the War Department has had to take steps to prevent the graduates of Kelly field from stepping from the service immediately to enter commercial employment.

The natural result has been an increase in commercial schools. On September 13 there were 400 commercial flying schools in the United States listed by the Department of Commerce. They have been growing so geometrically overnight in all parts of the country with such rapidity that the department field inspectors, of whom there are only five, have not yet been able to deal with all the applications for rating and approval.

Most of the new schools are using fields already in operation, as student training goes on considerably with other flying activities. This is permitted, although it is generally acknowledged to be a dubious practice. For the present, at least, it is a matter of expediency.

Under the present Commerce Department regulations all-purpose fields are not approved for training unless all parts of the field are suitable for taking off and landing. If only runways are used, other flying must be suspended during instruction periods.

This is a very in the right direction, of course, but we believe it will be only a matter of time when all student flying is segregated. Not only that, but training fields should be well removed from centers of population and all other flying fields.

Without imposing too much hardship on the schools now in operation, the Department of Commerce ought gradually to tighten its requirements as applied to training fields where there is any large amount of other flying, not only for the sake of the other pilots, but for the students themselves. Learning to fly on some fields we have seen is not unlike trying to learn to drive an automobile on Broadway.

Noise Abatement

CONSPICUOUS among the completely absent problems which lurk on the horizon of the airplane designer, dies spectators to being occasional disturbance to his thoughts, is the reduction of the volume and the improvement of the quality of the sound which pours forth from a machine in flight. Noise in the airplane has not been so casual as some that the servability of the machine absolutely dependent upon its control. Other matters have seemed of some immediate urgency, and that use as a rule has been put aside for consideration in some hour of leisure when more pressing problems should have been disposed of. There has to be even less decided improvement in silencing in some cases, especially in large transports, but it has been the result of noise and noise less obvious modifications in design rather than of such painstaking and fundamental analysis as has been devoted, for example, to developing blood flying possibilities.

The subject is one that will not stand neglect. It should command the active attention of the best brains of the aviation industry. It should be the subject of collegiate basic research. It is by no means beneath the notice of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, and should find a place among the studies undertaken by that body many of them already complicated with such distinguished success, in its laboratories at Langley Field. The matter assumes increased importance with the recent increasing of the public exposure to demand the reduction of noiselessness noise in the quiet cities is an ineliminable social nuisance and a menace to health and happiness. Already the newspapers that have taken the lead in the attention are training their guns upon the airplane as one of the offenders against peace and quiet sleeping to be brought under control.

The dilemma has two aspects. It is not enough to cater to the comfort of the passengers inside the cabin by insulating them from the sound. It is not enough to cut down the volume of noise reaching the ears of those dwelling upon the ground. Of the two, the first is the more important, but both are serious problems, and both demand attention. They are solvable only to a limited extent. Noise may be disagreeable without being penetrating, and vice versa. There have been cases of aircraft, especially those with propellers running at very high up speed, which produced very different effects upon the ears of the passengers and those of listeners upon the ground. We have been in mind the feelings back of inventory by air and of those upon the shoreline. We are optimistic enough to believe that systematic research will remove any ground for serious complaint by either group. In the meantime, pilots must recognize their responsibility to protect aviation against a black eye by keeping a very good altitude, as good as the weather permits, above all residential districts.

Private Pilots AND THEIR PROBLEMS

By EARL D. OSBORN

OF ALL the uncertain fields in an uncertain industry, that of the private and pleasure owner is the most in doubt. We can see signs showing airlines, air mail and passenger lines and we can get figures on the amount of traffic, but try to find out how many private owners there are who fly purely for pleasure and there will be another story, or rather lack of story.

Data is available as to the companies and individuals who own planes and have professional pilots to fly them, but little is known of the private owner who flies his own plane. Yet it is this class who will bring up aircraft sales to the point of real production. Any vehicle which must be handled by a professional, such as a locomotive, bus or steamship, is comparatively limited in its production. In the early days of the automobile there were proportionally many more chauffeurs than there are now, and mass production did not start until automobiles were taken up by the private owner and driver. The same will hold true of the airplane.

What then are the prospects for the development of private flying? This subject has been discussed many times without any conclusions being reached. The writer, who is not a professional pilot, has covered during the past seven years, two flying hours and a bad press. He still does not feel designated to decide the question, and can only add a few random thoughts. In the first place, a lot of sport can be had out of flying for pleasure. Although the element of competition is lacking, flying is enough of a game to keep one interested. It requires skill to make a turn, and it requires skill to land a plane gently and in the exact place that one wishes to land. By instrument and by feel one knows if one is flying well and it is very easy to tell the difference between a good and a bad landing. It is surprising to find how much better one flies on certain days than on others. Thus there is the weather question. Cloudiness is always difficult and the different loads vary even if the flying is done from a fixed base.

There is always something new to be learned. What weight flying has been sufficiently improved, various forms of accidents can be practiced. Most private fliers will not want to go far into

stunt flying but a certain amount is almost necessary and, if attempted intelligently, will prove most interesting. Then there is the field of instrument flying. Blind flying is bad weather is only for professionals but instrument flying can be practiced at high altitudes rather by keeping one's head until within the cockpit or by flying through small clouds.

Flying is a sport like riding to hounds, or sailing. It requires an adventure, one to those who have done a lot of it. There is a thrill in the contact and contact with the elements which is later lost in those held in the city. To many, a sense of danger is an added touch of sport without which flying would become monotonous. If private flying always remained limited to those who have the sporting interest, it would still continue to have its devotees, but their numbers would be limited.

At present, private flying for business purposes has very decided limitations. It is too unreliable, too expensive, and too inconvenient. Scheduled operation of airlines has only been obtained by very careful ground representation applying both to the maintenance of planes and to weather reporting. Even at that, there are considerable periods when weather conditions prevent scheduled flights.

The private flier has no the facilities for getting weather reports and he has not the experience, the ability or the inclination to fly through thick weather as does a professional pilot. Also, in most cases he will not trouble to find out what the weather is unless changing reports in trade circles show it is today. When appointments must be kept and a race is busy, he cannot afford to wait on the weather. There are times



A view of the restaurant business and hotel of the Lane Hotel, New York.

when the private plane flown by the owner really does not count on the whole the time taken in finding, waiting that the plane is in good shape, getting it out of the hangar and warming it up more than consumes the time saved. These are flying hours for their owner, but in the category of sales it will be found that private pilots are not among their planes for business representation in comparison with buses or automobiles.

This situation will be greatly improved by better facilities for the maintenance of private planes, and especially by better and more readily available weather reporting. More airports along the routes traversed will also be a great help.

The developments which apply to business flying do not apply to the same extent on cross-country flights which are made primarily for pleasure and only secondarily to get to a destination at a given time. And there is a growing use of planes for week-end visits.

SOME years ago a wealthy private plane owner was asked what he considered his greatest loss. His reply was that he had never lost any one except for the fact that he would probably decide that it was too expensive. The same situation, unfortunately, applies to a considerable extent today. One cannot expect maintenance on a plane and engine and unless an owner has the time and ability and desire to do the work himself he will pay good round prices for maintenance. The private owner will in most cases pay more per flying hour than does the professional operator if only because of the fact that he does not see his equipment as systematically or intensively. This situation is also being remedied by better and more reliable planes and engines, and also by the development of better servicing facilities for private planes.

There are some people who predict a very rapid growth of privately owned and flown planes. The writer, after some 350 hours of solo, feels that there will be a steady growth of those who fly for pleasure, but cannot persuade himself that there will be an enormous expansion until flying is made very much easier than it is today. There are private owners who do not question their ability and yet do not crash. These are either born lucky or else are those rare birds who are natural fliers, just as some few people have an athletic facility which enables them to star in any game that they enter.

The majority of private fliers and plane owners try to do more than their skill and present weather

conditions or later have trouble. The average private flier does not have the time to become, or even stay, an expert. There are

practically no good pilots who do not play for six or eight hours a week and flying takes just as much time. Safety in flying requires practice, and as far as can be ascertained, few private planes owners fly as much as 250 hours a year. The average would probably be under 100 hours, and that is not enough. This can be proved statistically by the records of the Army or Navy and by insurance figures. It also is brought home in the weather flier when he underestimates a field or when he finds himself stalling or slipping when turning close to the ground. There are few times when an amateur goes flying that he does not find some emergency, just as there are few times that an amateur golfer does not find some shots in golf, missing the ball means a higher score, in flying, missing the field may mean something more serious.

The average private owner feels more comfortable if he is some where in the vicinity of his own field. Flying cross-country may mean a forced landing in a small field, it may mean running into bad weather and, in all events, it means landing in a strange field. The majority of private owners do not fly long distances cross-country except occasionally, the greater part of their flying hours are put to record on the home airport. The average amateur pilot can fly better over his own airport and can make better landings and take-offs because he can concentrate on his flying and does not have to look for possible dangers.

The weather question also keeps many fliers near their home field. There are few amateur fliers who do not feel uncomfortable when they are flying on a very heavy day. When close to the home airport the weather truly that if the weather gets too thick or too hazardous, he can land, whereas he would not like to have to fly through a storm with the possibility of a forced landing in unfamiliar country.

Those who have exceptional natural flying ability, and to those who have the time to put in four or five hours a week of flying, these limitations do not hold, but to allow the average private owner to extend his flying range he must crash. More than 80 per cent of airplane accidents are attributable to some error by pilots in planning. This is another way of saying that the flying of an airplane is too difficult.

Part of this, in the writer's belief, is caused by the fact that the airplane of today is designed for pro-

How square view of a First Marine Division with a Sikorski HO engine.



Insistent users. All test pilots are professionals and what they want is different from what the private pilot wants.

Up until the last few years, most designers was for ordinary purposes, and what is needed for the military service is not what is needed for the private pilot. Manufacturers of airplanes, although they have considered the question of private flying, have been told down by military insistence and by the verdict of professional pilots. If the Guggenheim Safe Airplane Competition does nothing else, it will draw the attention of manufacturers to the fact that there are other flying characteristics which may be as important as those they have been trying so hard to achieve.

What does the amateur pilot want? He wants a plane which positively will not stall or spin. Pilots have been told which are very hard to put into a spin and many prominent engineers claim that it is possible to build a plane which cannot stall or spin. The amateur pilot wants a plane which will glide under full control at a much steeper angle than that of present planes. Skilled pilots lessen their gliding angle by side-slipping, fish-tailing, etc., but the average amateur feels some uneasiness in the violent application of these maneuvers. What he wants is a plane which, besides being able to glide at ten to one, will also glide at an angle of four to one or better and at a relatively low speed. That, incidentally, is one of the requirements in the Guggenheim Safe Airplane Competition. Such performance can only be obtained by spinning down beyond the stalling angle. There are planes which will sink at this angle but should not try to land this way, there would be great danger of stalling and there are few landing gears which would stand the shock.

It does not seem impossible to design a plane which (the pilot needs) by pulling the stick back and letting it squab down at an angle of four to one sink it into the ground. If all a pilot had to do was to pull the stick back and keep the plane in lateral balance and headed into the wind, his job would be easier than at present. A gliding angle of four to one would require much less accurate judgment of height and distance than an angle of ten to one, and would make flying much easier. Many designers may say that this cannot

be done. This may be true but it certainly is true also that it will never be done unless designers concentrate upon the effort.

To a professional pilot, a landing speed of 60 mph. may not be excessive, but the amateur, without an instinctively correct use of the controls, has to give part of his thought to his plane and cannot concentrate



An action "shot" of an Avian level skimmer in the air

in possible alternatives or other planes. The slower a plane lands, the better it will be for a private pilot. If there were no danger in flying slowly and if planes would come down at an angle of four to one, half the trouble would be won. If it were easier to learn how to fly and if it did not require such skill to land planes in small fields, the number of private owners would increase greatly. This would automatically solve many of the problems of high cost, service, weather reporting, etc. Cost designers and manufacturers realize that the present-day airplane is limited so far as private flying is concerned, there will be little progress. The demands of the private flyer are different and perhaps much more difficult to achievement than the demands of the professional, but there is no reason why they cannot be solved provided that the problem is really tackled systematically and with courage.

However, enthusiasts will continue to fly far apart with airplanes of the present day type. There is an ever-increasing number of motor boats being sold, though they are burned by weather and can rarely be used for business. The same will hold true of the airplane. Each sport has its "fans," but fans rarely build up a great inquiry. Flying must be made easier before airplanes will be sold to all those who can afford them.



Showing how the wings of a Cessna 170 may be joined for longer strength

HEAT TREATMENT OF Alloy Steels IN AIRPLANE WORK

*Methods and Equipment Employed in the Recently Completed
Fairchild Factory at Farmingdale, L. I.*

By C. B. PHILLIPS

Plant President, Barber Colman Company

THE DEVELOPMENT of steel alloys and heat treatments to bring out certain desired physical characteristics has been one of the greatest aids in the advancement of aviation. Stronger and lighter construction both in the plane itself and the engine, are goals sought by all airplane designers and it is here that the steel-alloy becomes a main support of this industry.

One of the steadily modern airplane factories in the world has just been completed by the Fairchild Airplane Mfg. Corp., Farmingdale, L. I., N. Y., and its steel-alloy department is complete in every respect. The company needs no introduction for it was a Fairchild which took Collier and Meacham around the world in 23 days, a Fairchild that first reached the stranded flyers of

the Bougainville on Grevelly Island and a Fairchild in which Ryan first explored the territory around the South Pole.

The Fairchild Airplane Mfg. Corp., one of the subsidiaries of the Fairchild Aviation Corp., is among the largest manufacturers of single engine planes in America. It also builds engines, flying boats, and boats, its latest type of engine being the Genet, of English design, which it is making under license. This engine is rated at 80 hp. and of the usual two-cylinder type.

MORE THAN TEN different alloy steels go into the manufacture of the planes and engines made by this company, and some of them are heat treated to bring out the greatest strength and toughness, and other desirable qualities. Taking for the foreknowledge as well as welded fittings are made of a chrome-nickel-molybdenum steel of the following analysis:

Carbon	0.23-0.35%
Manganese	0.40-0.70%
Phos.	0.040 max.
Sulphur	0.045 max.
Chromium	0.80-1.10%
Molybdenum	0.15-0.25%

This alloy is used because its strength is best affected by the process of welding. The best treatment used consists of heating to between 1,550 and 1,650 deg. F., quenching and drawing to the required hardness.

Fittings that are heated with a gas torch instead of welded are made from a low carbon steel the analysis of which is:

Carbon	0.25-0.30%
Manganese	0.50-0.80%
Sulphur	0.45 max.
Phos.	0.03 max.



The Barber Colman Company at the Fairchild plant

The same heat treatment as described is used except that a temperature 25 deg. F higher is used.

A nickel steel is used for bolts, taper pins and small machined parts and is of the following analysis:

Carbon	0.25-0.35%
Manganese	0.30-0.60
Phos	0.04 max.
Sulphur	0.045 max.
Nickel	3.85-5.75

As these are for the most part produced from bar stock the only heat treatment is to heat to 1,450-1,500 deg. F., quench in water and draw to the required hardness. The quench gives a tensile of better than 150,000 lb. so the square rods with a yield point in excess of 125,000, but these drop with the draw.

CHRON-CHROME-CHROME STEEL, such as piston pins, cross-finger forgings, valve stems, etc., are made from a chrome-nickel steel of the following analysis:

Carbon	0.30-0.25%
Manganese	0.30-0.60
Phos	0.04 max.
Sulphur	0.045 max.
Nickel	10.1-1.50
Chromium	9.45-9.75

Naturally maximum hardness of the case and maximum retentivity of both the case and the core, together with a minimum of distortion, are required, and in order to give these characteristics the parts are first carburized at 1,625-1,675 deg. F., after which they are allowed to cool in the boxes. They are then reheated to between 1,400 and 1,450 deg. F., quenched and drawn at from 250-300 deg. F. as required.

Forgings for airplanes and forgings machined from bar

stock, etc., such as wing hinges, strut links, strut sockets, ball ends, etc., requiring pinion strength and toughness that are obtainable with plain carbon steel, are made from a chrome-nickel steel very similar in analysis to the one just described. The differences include 0.20 more carbon and more manganese. As the grain structure on forgings is less uniform than that of bar stock in most cases, they must first be normalized by heating to from 1,625-1,725 deg. F. The heat treatment for both forgings and bar stock products produced from this alloy, and outcome of the normalizing of the forgings, consists



Above—Photograph showing the heat treating equipment located at the plant of the Fairchild Aircraft Division, Inc., at Farmdale, N. Y. South of the equipment is this department's test area furnished by the Surface Combustion Company. Below—portion of the assembly line at the Fairchild plant where several types of airplanes are built.



An aerial view of the plant, plant and hangar of the Fairchild company at Farmdale.

of heating to 1,575-1,525 deg. F., quenching in oil, and drawing to the required hardness.

For studs, engine rollers are forgings, crankshafts, connecting rods, etc., a chrome-nickel steel is employed, as these parts require greater strength, toughness and resistance to fatiguing conditions than is possible to obtain with plain carbon steel. The analysis is as follows:

Carbon	0.30-0.40%
Manganese	0.50-0.80
Phos	0.04 max.
Sulphur	0.04 max.
Chromium	0.80-1.10
Vanadium	0.05 max.
	(0.18 percent)

The forgings must be normalized, as outlined in the preceding paragraph, after which they are reheated to 1,250-1,350 deg. F., quenched in oil and drawn to the required hardness. These parts which are so heat-treated after forging and before heat treating are first normalized and then reheated to 1,250-1,350 deg. F., allowed to cool slowly and then machined. After that they are reheated again to 1,250-1,350 deg. F., quenched in oil and drawn.

Parts that require still greater strength than is obtained in the foregoing alloy, such as valve springs, gears, camshafts, etc., are made from a steel similar in analysis but with a 0.15 higher carbon content. These are normalized at 1,250-1,350 deg. F., reheated to 1,525-1,625 deg. F., quenched in oil and drawn. For parts, such as gears, that are to be machined after forging, the same heat treatment is employed with the exception that they are reheated to 1,250-1,350 deg. F. and cooled slowly after normalizing. They are then machined and the rest of the heat treatment thus applied.

ANY OTHER CHROME-VANADIUM STEEL, which is primarily a tool steel is used successfully in self-driven bearings, the application is in plain bearings in push rod ball ends, rocker arm rollers, etc., and has the following analysis:

Carbon	0.90-1.00%
Manganese	0.20-0.45
Phos	0.02 max.
Sulphur	0.03 max.

Chromium	0.80-1.10
Vanadium	0.05 max.
	(0.18 percent)

In heat treating, the parts are first normalized at 1,650-1,750 deg. F. and cooled to 1,000 deg. F., black heat, by spraying the furnace. They are then reheated to 1,300-1,350 deg. F. and soaked for at least 30 hr., or until the desired structure and machinability are produced, after which they are cooled slowly in the furnace. The parts are then machined when they are heated to 1,300-1,350 deg. F., quenched in oil and drawn.

THE HEAT TREATING DEPARTMENT is equipped with the latest and most modern heat treating units. There are seven furnaces, including an oil drive, all fired with gas. The four largest are machined units made by the Surface Combustion Co., Toledo, Ohio.

The exhaust system is so designed that the burning gases are successfully retained and there is no tendency for the furnaces to spring out of alignment. The forges are of 44 in. firebrick and brick-clink enough to maintain rigidity but not so thick as to absorb and retain any large quantity of heat. The 38 in. oil heat-treating is selected in most effective in preventing oxidation losses, either through the furnace oil or doors. A machined improvement in working conditions is thus realized.

The forges of these furnaces is 8 ft. long, 3 ft. wide and 25 in. high inside dimensions. This unit is equipped with five high pressure gas burners on each side, mounted to Surface Combustion burners. This system of firing provides an effective temperature range of from 700-1,650 deg. F. and is suitable economically maintains perfect condition and the desired furnace atmosphere, regardless of pressure changes in the air or gas supply line.

The firing is so arranged that the heat is rapidly and uniformly distributed to all parts of the furnace floor is maintained and controlled rate of combustion. This system of firing and the use of single valve control leads to automatic economies in fuel and also in labor, while production is put on a sure basis.

The other furnaces are similar in design and construction but of somewhat smaller dimensions. All are provided with automatic temperature controls so that when the proper time cycle is maintained there can be no variation in the heat treatment from one charge to another.

NATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

By R. SIDNEY BOWEN, JR.

Factory

THROUGH Branches

IN THE OPINION of the officials of the American Eagle Aircraft Corporation, Kansas City, Mo., there is no such thing as the aerospace industry as an airplane distributor. At first glance, such a statement might cause certain gentry of the aerospace industry, who quite justly regard themselves as airplane distributors, to raise to the occasion and remark in no uncertain tones that some one is trying to make a fool of them. However, when duly explained, the opinion of the American Eagle officials more or less hits the nail on the head. When one takes the automotive distributor as the pattern, there is indeed "one shoe to fit all" in the aerospace industry. The automotive distributor has a display room which includes every model produced by the manufacturer that he represents. In other words, the entire line is on display for all who care to come and inspect. They are not reserved for demonstration purposes or otherwise, but remain "as is" until assigned to "the back room" to await some for the year's new designs.

With but one exception, there is not, to our knowledge, a single distributor of airplanes who has on display at any one point, the complete line of planes that he represents. The principal reason is, undoubtedly the matter of financial outlay. Another is the lack of suitable display space. And a third, is probably because the distributor never considered the idea due to the experienced, economical policy of having money tied up in non-moving stock. . . . particularly in this early stage of aeronautical merchandising. However, whatever the reasons, Mr. Customer is forced to inspect a demonstrator at the local flying field, as conditions are today. He can not wait some downtown establishment and look over the entire line of models, prior to visiting the field with the idea of getting a demonstrator in the product which necessarily suits him today.

The result is, according to the American Eagle officials, that many sales are lost. They are firm in the belief that the customer should have all the "wares" paraded before him as it were. And when one considers the difficulty in getting many prospects to go out to some distant flying field, in order to make a first hand inspection, that belief appears to be quite true.

The question which quite naturally arises at this point is . . . if there is no such animal as the aerospace in-

dustry as an airplane distributor, then how is distribution "efficiently and profitably" handled?

Perhaps the answer may be found in the policies and methods of the American Eagle Aircraft Corp.

Originally, this company worked along the distribute and desire idea, but when the sales ledger pointed out its weak points . . . and in a most favorable way, gradually

away with distributors, and in their place set up factory branches, completely owned and operated by the Kansas City company. In addition to the factory branches other sales agencies for American Eagle products were appointed, and although such agencies might be referred to as distributors, they are in reality merely dealers. And in order to further increase the size of the national selling organization, to make sure of complete coast-to-coast coverage, the factory-operated selling agencies are permitted to appoint secondary dealers, such as persons or organizations not interested primarily in the sale of aircraft.

The policy of establishing factory branches was of course decided upon as the result of the existing distributors not desiring, or not being financially able, to carry a complete line of American Eagle products. The men put in charge of the factory branches were those persons who functioned as roadmen, or field sales engineers, under the original plan. The personnel of each factory branch is made up of men fully experienced in American Eagle products. Factory branches that have been established are in Portland, Ore.; Glendale, Calif.; Dallas, Tex.; Montgomery, Ala.; and Minneapolis, Minn.

Not only do the factory branches act as selling establishments, but they also act as complete service shops also, as a very complete stock of parts is carried by each branch. The parts are, of course, not only used at the branches but are redistributed to the various other American Eagle outlets located in the field. Thus it will



R. H. Purcell, president of American Eagle Aircraft Corp.



A biplane carries American Eagle four flyers in the air over Kansas City.

be seen that the American Eagle Company has laid out material sales and service in such a manner that either the prospect or customer-seeker is well cared for.

Naturally it follows that it would be highly uneconomical for the American Eagle Company to establish factory branches at every spot that boasted an "American Eagle" "population." Therefore, the company officials analyzed the country most minutely before deciding upon the location of the factory branches. While all of the factory branches planned have not as yet been established, those that have been give indication of the idea behind the entire policy. And that idea is to place the factory branches that every prospect is within two and one-half to three hours of a demonstration on any type or model produced by the American Eagle and its subsidiary organizations.

THE REMARK might be made at this point . . . that few persons are going to hop aboard a train to travel to some distant city in which a factory branch is located, in order to get a demonstration. Perhaps that might be true, regardless, in some cases. However, as is known of roadmen the best type of selling service is in prospect.

The company has appointed what are known as district managers. These managers are situated throughout the country in parts not "covered" with factory branches. Their work is to contact their district and do everything possible to boost sales and service within their domains. They are on the American Eagle payroll and have direct contact with the Kansas City office. Each district manager has a demonstrator, just as the other appointed selling agencies and engineers have demonstrators. However, the district manager functions more as a field sales representative, so that he constantly contacts neighboring points in his district.

The manner in which the factory branch functions with the district manager is perhaps best described by the following example.

Let it be assumed that the district manager located in San Francisco has contacted

a prospect to the point where that prospect is seriously considering a purchase, but considering the purchase of a model not carried by the San Francisco district manager. The nearest factory branch, where all models may be inspected, and a demonstration made on any one of them, is located at Glendale, on the outskirts of Los Angeles, Calif. Thus the district manager invites the prospect to fly with him to the Glendale factory branch.

At a matter of a two or three hour flight (depending upon those famous California tail winds). When the district manager and "party" arrive, said party is then able to "see his material" on the suburban floor, or as the say. And naturally, said party is the guest of the district manager on the return trip to San Francisco.

Completed 4000 powered American Eagle airplanes ready for test flight and shipment.



The entire procedure, that of sending the prospect to make the trip down, flying him down, the inspection of the entire line of models, a demonstration is one that most like him. His visitation on the distant line (no hope) and the return flight to San Francisco can be carried out in the space of a few hours.

It is readily admitted that the above mentioned procedure does take a certain amount of time — percentage enough to cause the prospect to lose a business day. However the advantages of such an arrangement are so beneficial to the prospect, to say nothing of the advantages to the American Eagle sales helpline, that the possible disadvantage to the prospect losing a business day, is fully paid for.

In the first place, the prospect has a real opportunity to "shop." He can inspect the entire line of "models" offered, and does not have to go on a salesman's destination, or those proved in folders and descriptive catalogues. He is able to see the actual line of models, and in the third place, he is able to learn first hand of the facilities that the company offers regarding the maintenance servicing of his plane, in the event that he wishes to purchase. In purchase, the arrangement eliminates any "push-back" purchase by the customer. He has the opportunity to find what he wants, inspect what he wants, and purchase what he wants.

The same advantages are of course equally favorable to the selling company of not more so. They at least permit the company a maximum of opportunity to get the signature on the closed line. To state which advantage carries the most benefits is rather impossible as all three are intertwined with the ultimate goal, that of a sale of an American Eagle product. However, the establishment of the factory branches is the only means by which the advantages are made possible. Therefore, perhaps the first is paramount.

Returning to the selling agencies and associates appointed by the factory, it might be of interest to note that there is no such thing as a closed territory under the American Eagle arrangement. The reason for such a policy is, according to the officials of the company, because the competitive and non-competitive nature that was received from distributors and dealers in the field. As a means of removing the possibility of discrimination "in the field" the company decided to adopt the "open source" policy from point to point.

Incidentally, it should prove of interest to follow the progress of this open territory policy as it is one of the few cases existing at the present time in the field of territories.

In the automotive industry it is an old old problem which, according to many in the position to state, has not as yet proved successful one way or the other. Particularly so, in the intermingling of replacement parts and accessories. Those that force closed territories do so in such a way that it enables the distributor or dealer, as the case may be, to better develop his territory. When forced to compete "in his own backyard" the closed territory advocates feel that the distributor or dealer is prevented from looking up toward the pool of replacement sales opportunities.

On the other hand, those that favor open territories do so, because they feel that "outside" or "neighborly" competition is the best means of keeping the local distributor and dealer on his feet and "taking the bait" every

minute of the working day. It presented with a closed territory, they feel that the distributor or dealer is tempted to adopt the "new come to me" idea, and to merely scoop up the ready made "cream" and then the back and develop into a "right possession brand" — in other words, reap 80 per cent of the benefits of an "outside" sale, without the exertion of any sales effort on his part.

Both sales undoubtedly have reasonable arguments, and perhaps there is no solution that can apply to both. Experience, as in the case of the American Eagle Company, proves which idea to be the best for a particular organization to adopt. However, as mentioned above, in view of the fact that the American Eagle Company is one of the very few organizations in existence that have adopted the open territory policy, it should prove of interest to note the success of the policy as it goes on. Thus far, it is operating to the complete satisfaction of the factory officials.

The problem or rather the task of reforming the policy of distributors and dealers, not handling competitive products, in one which has not caused any loss of sleep by the American Eagle sales management. The fact that the factory branches set as the real distributor may have been intended to do with it, but as may see the company does not want of the non-competitive policy owing to the fact that the selling agencies and associates handling American Eagle products handle those products exclusively of that area without any competition.

A lateral comparison for sales concentrated in closed and of course, such being, branch cooperates with adjacent sales centers in the same manner as would the Kansas City factory itself. Any "bought" product that needs additional "demonstration" is a service rendered by the factory branches and the district managers. The factory branches will also make the necessary backup for the financing of any sales.

With this service has dealt with the American Eagle policy and methods in the matter of obtaining maximum national distribution, a few words regarding a service to owners of American Eagle products might not be out of place.

In the event of a minor accident to a plane, such as a ground loop, that results in the snapping of undercarriage struts, or a cramped wingtip, etc., the average plane owner has no idea of what it will cost him to repair the damage. And of course the owner "imagines" the cost" until the local dealer or service station views "the damage" and makes an estimate. Sometimes the owner is forced to write to the factory for prices of new parts. Particularly, in such the case, when the owner desires to replace old but not damaged parts, or obtain additional "spare" parts.

To enable the owner of an American Eagle product to readily find out for himself the material charges on the repair of his damaged plane, the company supplies each owner, at the time of purchase, with a complete and detailed catalogue containing a description and price of every part of his plane in addition to all the "trimmings" that may be attached if desired. The parts catalogue is so made up that new factory equipment, marked out from time to time, may be "looked in" with the rest.

Materially the American Eagle parts prices are standard throughout the entire country. Thus any American Eagle owner, no matter where he may be located, can order any part or lot of "trimmings" that he desires, and know just what it is going to cost him.

THE WHY OF

Steel Built HANGARS

By M. S. LOCKE

Robert Dyer, Director, Sales Promotion Manager,
The Latta Company, Greenville, S. C.

A NEW INDUSTRY APPEARS—a new industry needs buildings. What are its requirements? Here should those buildings be built and of what?

To begin with, every building material has some advantages—some more or less than others. The trick is to find the one material that incorporates as many of the advantages as possible of all the others, adds a few of its own, and has none of the disadvantages of any of the others. Is there any such material? Probably not, but there may be one that comes close.

Aviation "men" agree on with a rush. Engineers and planners had proved to themselves and a select circle of supposedly experienced buyers the suitability of light. Public opinion had not accepted it. To steel light was a hazardous "bet." Then a boy with typical Yankee nerve demonstrated the courage of his convictions by spanning the sea—by air—alone—Col. Chas. A. Lindbergh. Contact was lost everywhere—landmarks, radio aids, business firms, and governments discarded, and outposts and cables. Aircraft inventors were retrained with orders. The story of the last complete development of aviation is not a mystery, you know it all too well. It was a story repeated on hundreds of fields. Bomber-like shelters were needed, the line of front resistance was taken. Temporary frame hangars were built, tents were used, old barns, and a multitude of structures of various kinds shapes and dimensions were provided for service.

Aviation is here—what are its requirements now?

Let us take a few accepted facts and put them down just to see what happens and what the cost may be. Aviators, while late and practically accepted, is still in its infancy. The steepest requirements of today may be obsolete tomorrow. Airports may have to be moved or enlarged to meet necessary demands and changing requirements. Flying is now a business and every phase of its development must be treated from a sound business basis. Education, to provide a firm foundation for development, must apply these same principles that have been the proven characteristics of every successful endeavor. The principal one of these is Business Economy.

BUSINESS ECONOMY has several contributing factors. Since hangars are the last of our decisions, the eye of Business Economy must be focused on a building. What constitutes Hangar Business Economy? What is a hangar? What does it do?

Our friend Webster says in brief and without embellishment "Hangar—a shed for the housing of airplanes." The best known in the country are aviation time, energy, and the expenditure of billions of dollars in the development of aircraft. Your plane is the result of the 9th degree to make a mechanical and aerodynamic thought. It is a costly scientific work of art and engineering. Research and Business Economy demand that it receive careful thought in its general protection—its "care." Thought must combine intelligently in purpose, protection against every hazard of the elements, life, air,

A typical steel sheet hangar with an office, rest room and crew facilities.



vulnerability, first cost, insurance.

Wood is an age-old structural material. Does it "fill the bill," so to speak? It is easy to get into itself admirably in building problems. Wood structures may be considered more or less permanent. Additions and repairs can be made easily. Primary construction cost is economical. A good 100 ft. x 100 ft. can be built for about \$10,000. Its use should give us the foundation of good business economy. Does it?

If by very intent, it is, even with the best of care, subject to deterioration and decay. It is easily inflammable. Used as an airport in a district beyond fire control, as airports generally are, it presents an unspectacular hazard. The insurance cost looks a bit prohibitive. Not more than 50 per cent of the total cost is insurable. No one insurance company seems willing to carry it, but insists on dividing the risk with other companies. American heavy records that where fire occurs there is usually a total loss. And we must use unusual care in the selection of our lumber. How shall we determine its quality? Is there any good equation we can use to arrive ourselves that each piece is the same, has the same strength, has definitely been subjected to the same period of seasoning? Will our doors always hang properly, run true and smoothly? Will our windows stay in a fixed position? Will all of our joints remain tight and weather resistant? Will our walls or roofs warp or get out of shape? What is our factor of safety in high winds? What is the experience of users of strictly frame buildings in comparison with other types? Aviation history has recorded many losses caused by high winds.

What is our salvage value should a moving and re-erecting necessity arise? Can we dismantle our frame hangar efficiently and rebuild it on our new location with our loss? That is an important point. Our aviation project is in its infancy stage. Considerable changes will probably be necessary in our frame hangar. Will these plans we deem worth saving give us maximum service in the re-erecting situation?

In order to host our frame hangar, we must build wide footing and a very good building paper between that and our outside decking. That will materially increase our expense, easily double our erection problem, and add an almost prohibitive element to our salvage and re-erecting problem.

A further possibility is a steel and brick or steel and concrete hangar. Very excellent, but does it fit in our program of economy? (Business Recovery?) Our first cost for a 100 ft. x 100 ft. will be \$45,000 or \$50,000. We will have a substantial improved, weather and wind proof, easily heated building of architectural beauty. Ad-



Above: The interior of a typical all-steel hangar showing the heavy expenditures and well considered interior finish. The roof structure with trussing, roof ribs and supports is plain. Durability of all points is apparent.



ditions will be a bit difficult and costly, and our maneuverability and re-erecting asset is virtually nil. Is that type of structure exactly what we want? Is our aviation project sufficiently definite in all its requirements? Is our airport location permanently fixed? I am afraid not.

What is our next option? An all-steel hangar. We can build a easily 100 ft. x 100 ft. x 18 ft. for \$15,000—much lower than brick and steel or concrete and steel. A little higher than wood. Isn't it worth it? Is it really higher— isn't it cheaper in the end, all points considered in our platform of necessity and business economy? What do we get? What is the opinion of others in this regard? We find at least one that we believe is typical. Mr. Archibald Black in his recent book "Civil Airports and Airways" says, "The all-steel hangar can be regarded as a permanent type of construction and has been used to quite some extent in this country. It was, in

fact, the first to be used. This type is, however, rapidly being supplanted in public favor by the all-steel and factory types, which have the advantage of longer life, better appearance and lower fire risk."

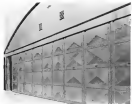
Mr. F. H. PARKLAND, Technical Manager, American Institute of Steel Construction, in a recent article on the subject says in part, "We can profit from the experience to date of aviation activities in Europe, comparatively slight though it may be. In the building of hangars and other airport structures, we must keep in mind that the nature of aviation is rapidly changing with a consequent swift rate of obsolescence. Buildings must afford these accommodations acquired of them, but they should likewise be subject to easy and inexpensive structural change. A hangar or structure possessing an salvage value and which cannot be removed without drilling or blasting is hardly the most efficient which can be erected at its support, and a building which is easily inflammable would hardly offset the protection which the airplane and its accessories demand."

Let us consider the adaptability of these materials to our purpose. No other building material approaches steel in strength. A heavily supported, solid steel column 34 in. high will support its own weight without crushing. A steel chain, hanging in tension, would be 18,000 in. long before its weight would break the topmost link. Steel has the ability to meet every kind of stress, or a combination of all of them, with more strength than is possessed by any other material. Every process in the making of steel, from its refinement in the open hearth furnace to its final passing through the rolls, is supervised and safeguarded with one purpose: to maintain uniform quality. Steel is worked and reworked, rolled and rolled again, until the metal has a uniform, flame-treated, tough texture. It is free from all hidden weakness. It is proved right in the making. The chemical properties of steel are more accurately fixed than are the properties of a molded prescription compounded by the most expert pharmacist.

Memberships and elements have controlled the manner of steel. Engineers have planned and checked its fabrication. In no other building material can we get such known strength and reliability. Steel comes to the job ready for erection, ready to be erected immediately. Every member in a steel has a definite position in the structure and it can be placed in its proper position

without delay. If you have marveled at the speed with which a tall building rises, you know how swiftly it is possible to build hangars with steel.

The inherent strength and stamina of structural steel mean that less bulk of material is necessary for safe construction. Where load values are high a far more adequate structure can be erected with steel than with any other material. Steel columns and beams occupy less



Below: Steel hangar showing steel doors. No other all-steel hangar.

space; consequently, interiors can be larger with construction members less conspicuous. The consequences of structural steel facilitate rapid and economical construction. No false work, staging, temporary supports, or forms are necessary. Structural steel puts into place outside complex, self-supporting. Experience has the full use of floor space as the work proceeds. Structural steel maintains its strength to a considerable degree in the presence of heat. Investigation have shown that it actually increases its compressive strength with a rise in temperature, reaching a maximum at about 930 degrees Fahrenheit. At 700 degrees, it is practically as strong as under normal conditions. The Bureau of Standards in Washington and the Underwriters' Laboratories in



A typical steel hangar, bringing in October 1957 at Woodland.

Chicago, is conducting extensive tests on the stress of structural steel members at temperatures up to 2,500 degrees Fahrenheit have found that a steel column with a casing of fireproofing will sustain its load under conditions evoked in the most severe configurations.

In a steel house every member is an integral part of the whole, directly contributing to the support and strength of every adjacent member. Structural steel is not rot-prone. Bridges and other steel structures are exposed to air and moisture require only cleaning and painting at intervals. The consensus of opinion among leading engineers is that no steel structure, which has the most usual situation, has ever been seriously affected by corrosion. The permanence of steel is a characteristic of the metal, determined by the molecular structure of iron, reinforced by the fabrication of steel. Corrosion scientifically is a process not dependent on construction conditions or the human economy.

All structural steel members are designed with a big reserve of strength and endurance—a positive assurance of true permanence. Structural steel is strong and resilient. It has the property of absorbing quickly from great shock and stress without any requirement of strength and durability. The raw materials from which steel is produced are subjected to extreme analysis. The

As the characteristics of every member are considered, the building is designed. The strength of structural steel is a definite, consistent figure. Additions or alterations can be planned with the same confidence of accuracy, and carried out with the same speed and economy that are characteristic of the steel industry. The steel building is altered by connecting or disconnecting its members of the proper size to the original frame, making them a component part of the building. Extensions or alterations to structural built of other materials do not have the advantage of complete unity and consolidated strength that is made possible by structural steel. The construction of structural steel buildings is a simple, direct, and easy way to erect new work. Unlike other structural materials, the strength of steel is not impaired by freezing, intense heat, or rain. Its qualities are uniform to injury resulting from climatic conditions. It does not have to be warmed, protected, and kept moist in order to acquire or retain its strength. Sometimes it is used as protective covering of buildings during construction.

Steel members have dropped from high elevations, or have been subjected to ship or train wrecks during transit, and yet have suffered no damage. Unless a member is visibly distorted it can be relied upon for its full duty. One pound of steel will do more work, cost

Steel	100
Granite	79
Brick	79
Longleaf yellow pine	86
Concrete	36

Airwheels FOR AIRPLANES

Performance of the Large Capacity, Low Pressure Tires, Recently Developed for Airplane Use

By A. J. MUESELMAN
The Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co.

EXHAUSTIVE flying and laboratory tests of large air capacity, low pressure airplane tires have now been made as an aid to the development of this type, known as the Goodyear Airwheel.

The specific data that follow regarding the Airwheel have all been taken from either actual flying and landing tests or reliable laboratory tests and indicate the advantages of the Airwheel.

The outstanding advantages are: Extreme cushioning in landing and taxiing; safe landing to land, soft ground, wet fields, snow or muddy fields; more perfect stress free shape; quicker take-offs and shorter landings; elimination of shock absorbers; less wear and tear on plane; no wheels to collapse, safety when landing with a punctured tire; less weight with added strength; internal lock breakers; slower and shorter lock-brakes when landing; and greater safety in forced landing.

Extreme cushioning in Landing and Taxiing—As ascertained by the large volume of air in low pressure tires which allows a large deflection under impact and the building up of higher internal pressure as deflection occurs.

This building up occurs over a much longer period than in a high-pressure tire. The longer the pressure the slower will be the absorption of impact and the higher the percentage of increase in pressure. Weight tests as well as the winter's tests, show that this pressure will build up from an equal value of 30 lb.

Showing the various sizes of Goodyear Airwheels, here are shown the airplane tires 24x10, 24x12, 28x12, 30x12, 32x12, 34x12, 36x12, 38x12, 40x12, 42x12, 44x12, 46x12, 48x12, 50x12, 52x12, 54x12, 56x12, 58x12, 60x12, 62x12, 64x12, 66x12, 68x12, 70x12, 72x12, 74x12, 76x12, 78x12, 80x12, 82x12, 84x12, 86x12, 88x12, 90x12, 92x12, 94x12, 96x12, 98x12, 100x12, 102x12, 104x12, 106x12, 108x12, 110x12, 112x12, 114x12, 116x12, 118x12, 120x12, 122x12, 124x12, 126x12, 128x12, 130x12, 132x12, 134x12, 136x12, 138x12, 140x12, 142x12, 144x12, 146x12, 148x12, 150x12, 152x12, 154x12, 156x12, 158x12, 160x12, 162x12, 164x12, 166x12, 168x12, 170x12, 172x12, 174x12, 176x12, 178x12, 180x12, 182x12, 184x12, 186x12, 188x12, 190x12, 192x12, 194x12, 196x12, 198x12, 200x12, 202x12, 204x12, 206x12, 208x12, 210x12, 212x12, 214x12, 216x12, 218x12, 220x12, 222x12, 224x12, 226x12, 228x12, 230x12, 232x12, 234x12, 236x12, 238x12, 240x12, 242x12, 244x12, 246x12, 248x12, 250x12, 252x12, 254x12, 256x12, 258x12, 260x12, 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tracely slow deflection and slow lock-back, unsatisfactory in high pressure tires. In landing, the effect is a long wheel stroke so soft that the feeling to the pilot is the same as if he were still in the air riding through warm and moist air currents. In fact, it is very hard for him

possibly to injure the Airwheel. Not only do laboratory impact records confirm this, but actual landings under unusual conditions.

The Airwheel is made to fit on a special hub. This hub is constructed to take an internal expanding brake. This brake mechanism, hidden from view on the back, makes the complete tire, wheel and bridle an integral unit as possible.

As a basis of comparison of the lock-back action, compare the 22x10 Airwheel with a 30x3, the one it replaces. On a plane of approximately 2000 lb total loaded weight, the air pressure in the 30x3 should be 32 lb to the square inch; with the 22x10, 11 lb is sufficient. With this low pressure, constantly an ideal cushion is created during the landing impact, and permits, if necessary, a maximum deflection of over 6 in., whereas the deflection of the 30x3 should be about 1½ in. Moreover, the rebound or lock-back of the high pressure tire is much more sudden and therefore much more severe.

This extraordinary difference in favor of the Airwheel may be still better understood by considering the tire element factor. That is, the difference in length of time of the impact period between the Airwheel and the higher pressure tire. In addition, the low pressure of the Airwheel with its large air capacity, not only lessens the time between impacts, but the compressional energy (as least) is about 100 per cent more than in the 30x3. All in all, the Airwheel produces a long, slow deflection, a shorter rebound making a low smooth trajectory movement in landing. In cases of forced landings the Airwheel will normally land a plane safely where it would be

TABLE 1
Equivalent data and pressure for present weight ships

Weight of ship	Airwheel	Present	Optimal tire pressure	Present
1000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
1500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
2000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
2500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
3000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
3500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
4000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
4500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
5000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
5500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
6000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
6500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
7000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
7500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
8000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
8500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
9000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
9500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
10000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
10500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
11000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
11500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
12000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
12500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
13000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
13500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
14000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
14500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
15000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
15500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
16000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
16500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
17000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
17500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
18000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
18500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
19000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
19500	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb
20000	11 lb	32 lb	11 lb	32 lb

is still exactly when he comes in contact with the earth in landing. This softness of landing actually saves the winging and winging of the plane, thereby lengthening its life.

The danger that exists of the collapsing of the ordinary ply wheel does not exist with the Airwheel, as no regular wheel is used. The unusually wide hub which gives a wide foundation for the tire. The hub is further provided with deep corrugations to fit corresponding corrugations in the base of the back of the tire, thus preventing the tire from coming off. In effect, the tire and hub are the wheel in one.

The landing of a plane fitted with Airwheel is no different from a plane fitted with ordinary wheels. As an example, a 22x10 Airwheel, with its recommended load and inflation pressure, holds the axle on which it is mounted 8.5 in. from the ground. If the tire goes flat, the axle will be lowered to 4.5 in., or a drop of 3.9 in. When the 30x3 high pressure tire, comparable to the 22x10 in capacity and rating, goes flat, it lowers the axle 2.4 in. The differential between the two tires is only 1.5 in.

This difference is more than offset by the wide base of the tire, also the fact that even without pressure (at the instant of impact), the atmospheric pressure in a 22x10 Airwheel is raised to a value great enough to support a load of over 330 lb. The sudden building up of pressure of the large volume of air surrounding the Airwheel takes care of all shock of landing. Further, the tires are built with straight side beads, with steel wire rings, and can never be made to jump from the hub and become entangled in the landing gear to cause ground looping.

These Airwheels will weigh considerably less than the corresponding tire tube and wheels they replace. From the standpoint of weight, it is doubtful if it would be



A set of Airwheel Airwheels fitted to a float plane

impracticable with high pressure tires without injury to the plane.

These tires are made at present in six different sizes. Front wheel sizes are 22x10, 30x13, 30x16, 46x20. Tail wheels, 12x5, 16x7, 22x10. These sizes take care of practically any weight plane made at the present time. When larger planes are made Airwheels can be made to accommodate them.

LOOKING FOR Safer Aircraft

*The Guggenheim Safety Competition
Draws Near to Its Close*



The 'Mushy' plane early demonstrating interest in the work. Both Airwheels and specially coated tires are seen. The specially constructed landing gear has been pulled down for a landing without error.

THE LAST DAY of the present month marks the beginning of the last stage of the Daniel Guggenheim Safe Aircraft Competition, formally known by Harry P. Guggenheim at a meeting in New York on April 30, 1959. To be eligible for consideration all competing machines must have been processed for tests at Mitchel Field by October 31, although it is to be anticipated that the tests will run on for a number of days thereafter, and that the final announcement of results will have to be correspondingly delayed.

There has been received a total of almost 30 entries in the competition. Two were withdrawn at a very early stage, when the companies making them found that it would be impossible to start from their activities the necessary basis for constructing a special machine for the contest. Two more planes were presented at the Field and then removed, and three remain a total of 23 entries on the active list, sixteen of them being American, three British, and one Italian. Only two of that number have actually appeared for tests up to October 8, while several more are known to be nearing readiness for test. While there will undoubtedly be a great rush of competition in the closing days of the month, the presumption is strong that a number of the entrants never will appear.

The object of the competition, as explicitly defined in the Guggenheim Fund's memorandum, has been the improvement of work for aerodynamic safety. This

was no attempt in preparing the rules to encourage structural novelty, or the provision of special safeguards against fire, or any of the other possible contributions to safety through design. The rules were drawn to insure that the winning airplane would be safely usable under all conditions, that it would have a high degree of inherent stability, and that its landing speed would be so low as to minimize the danger of injury to the machine or its occupants on contact with the ground.

The most severe of the competition qualifying tests, involving both landing speed and ground, requires that every machine must demonstrate its ability to take off from and climb out of a field 500 ft across, bordered by trees 25 ft high, and that the pilot must be able to make a safe landing within the field in case of engine failure at any instant during the climb.

To protect the competition against the possibility of gross losses, the rules bearing directly upon stability, control, climb, weight, and maximum speed were supplemented by requirements that the performance should be reasonably good in all respects. Specifically, each aircraft is required to carry 5 ft of fuel and per horsepower, including fuel for three hours



The 'Mushy' plane with steps in landing and take-off speed on day

flying at full throttle to make a maximum speed of 110 mph, and to climb 600 ft. per sec. at a height of 1,000 ft. above sea level.

THE RULES of the competition invited, but did not definitely require, a type of aircraft radically departing from the normal in appearance and function. The specification of a minimum speed of not more than 38 mph in level flight made it impossible to use a wing loading of more than about 5 lb. per sq. ft., if a star and airplane were to be entered. If the machine were to be powered so that it included no slots or flaps or other provisions for varying the lift of the wing, the load could have hardly exceeded 4 lb. per sq. ft. To combine the maximum speed with a maximum of at least 150 mph, the power loading would have to be kept in the neighborhood of 10 hp. per sq. ft. by means of a control wing, and but little over 6 lb. without means of varying the lift. Stability would have to be excellent, and the machine would have to be spin-proof and possess a very rapid landing gear to permit of proceeding from out of a steep glide. Given these natural characteristics, a machine of standard type ought at least to meet the standard of minimum qualifications.

There is no way of knowing how many of the aircraft put to rest any have denied themselves, in present, but at least two advantages are included in the first few months to appear, including the two subsequently withdrawn, all offered clearly to standard practice except for the use of flap and slots.

The first plane to come up for test was the Brewster-Wheeler entry, which was first exhibited early in July, and has been flown extensively ever since. The plane follows the firm's standard design closely and has no variable lift mechanism, securing a reduced maximum load only by the increase of area. A number of speed tests have been made, and the plane has shown good results and weaknesses. It appears that experience so far had with all the competing planes and from predictions of what types are yet submitted for test may be expected to do that the maximum speed requirement, but in its the later stages of the competition, must not need to be especially stressed, is to offer one of the most troublesome problems. The minimum speed requirement would be very to note if there were no specification of maximum, although in that case the designer in the rules of the competition might be satisfied in any direction without external assistance in a 20-mph wind would be likely to offer serious difficulty for a plane of abnormally low wing loading and with no means of varying the lift.

THE MACHINE built and entered by Heroldo Alfaro of Cleveland sought to arrive upon the scene of action, was given preliminary tests during September, and was withdrawn by the builder who he satisfied himself that certain of the tests were beyond the range of his machine in its present form. The design remains interesting in showing one engineer's reaction to the rules.

The Alfaro plane illustrated herewith, is a clean monoplane with a variable lift wing. The construction is simplest design in respect of the variable-lift device, which includes provision both for change of wing surface and change of area. The Alfaro plane is shown in the photographs, pulled down along the trailing edge, and at the same time seen backward from the huge carrying a slider with it so that no open gap is left and so

that the trailing edge is moved backward appreciably from its normal position with the flap raised. Wind tunnel tests are reported to show an increase of lift of about 87 per cent on a Clark Y section by the use of such a flap.

Latent control is the Alfaro design was secured by a combination of ailerons set at a very, lower angle of sweep to the spar, as can be seen in the illustrations, and spacers, or small auxiliary surfaces above the leading edge moved to destroy the lift on the side of the plane which the pilot wished to lower. The standard ailerons control is especially effective at low angles of attack, while the spacers come into effective action under stalled conditions.

One other minor departure from conventional form in the Alfaro design was the placing of the horizontal stabilizer back closer to the fuselage than the standard, to decrease the amount of interference with the air-flow over the tail and reduce the downwash and dispersion effects.

The third of the machines entered that arrived at Herold's field was a standard standard 3100, but that also was withdrawn before having officially been put through any of the tests.

The most, and the first of the foreign competitors, was a plane constructed by the Handley-Page Company, now awaiting trial.

IT IS IMPOSSIBLE as yet to give out any characteristics either on the details of design or on the performance of the Handley-Page machine, but in its general appearance there is nothing of the bizarre. It is a biplane with the lower wing smaller than the upper, and with slots and flaps both for lateral control and for the increase of maximum lift. The auxiliary aileron which forms the slot on the tip of the upper wing and is front of the ailerons, which are mounted on the upper wing, however, and over the entire lower span, the slot is manually controlled by the pilot and a flap along the trailing edge operates in conjunction with the auxiliary aileron, the flap coming down in the slot as spread. This device is the only one of its kind, the usual development of Handley-Page design practice over the past several years.

As previously mentioned, no figures are being given on the plane, but the construction appears to be light, and the wing loading is understood to be of the order of 5 lb. per sq. ft. The landing gear has the appearance of great sturdiness and unusually long shock-absorber travel. The machine has been extensively tested in England before it was brought to this country, and will be flown in its preliminary demonstrations at Herold's field by Captain Ford, representing the Handley-Page Company. The rules of the competition require the entrant's pilot to surmount and demonstrate flights to show that the machine can be put through the tests with safety. The actual test flights and demonstrations will be made by the Captain Ford's pilots, Thomas Carroll, formerly of the Royal Air Force, and the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, E. W. Remick of the Bureau of Aeronautics of the Navy Department, and Lancel Shawley United States of the Air Corps. They have a very large amount of test flying ahead of them in the next month.



Nine States Without License Requirements

WASHINGTON (n. c.)—Federal license requirements are not required for private pilots and owners by seven states and one territory, figures released by Clement M. Young, Assistant Secretary of Commerce for Aeronautics. Nine of the 32 states, districts, and possessions of the United States, he states require no license for private pilots, and only 13 are required in commercial flying, either state or Federal licensing is necessary in six states, and require state licenses, and nine states require none at all.

Alabama, Alaska, California, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri (except testing for pleasure), Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Texas, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming are the states where Federal license must be secured.

Federal license are imperative for commercial flying in the following States: Colorado, District of Columbia, Hawaii, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Philippine Islands, and West Virginia. An option of either a Federal or state license is made in Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Nevada, and Virginia, while the states requiring state licenses for all planes and operators are, Arizona, Connecticut, Florida, Kansas, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania.

Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Nevada, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Utah are without state or Federal license requirements.

Preparation is under way by the Aeronautics Branch of a pamphlet containing information on state aeronautical regulations, with abstracts and verbatim copies of all regulatory state laws pertaining to aviation. The pamphlet, which the 1925 Air Commerce Act will also be furnished and suggestions for uniform state air laws offered.

Engine and Propeller Approvals

WASHINGTON (n. c.)—Based on reports of engines and propellers built by the Bureau in a total of 20 and the latter to a total of 111, according to the Oct 1 Air Commerce Bulletin. New power plant approvals have been granted for Whitley Harnett, 91-cyl. radial air 505 hp. at 1,250 revs. per min. No. 25—Pratt & Whitney Harnett, 91-cyl. radial air, 500/1,000 and No. 30—American-Curtis, 4-cyl. inline air, 80/200. Approvals for 80 and 100 hp. to the propellers are also given, No. 3 and the Mustang Standard OX-5, respectively. No. 11 through 111 are Standard Star Propeller first models.

GENERAL NEWS



Livingston Keeps Tour Lead As Planes Arrive at Atlanta

Stage St. Louis Show Free 15-23

ST. LOUIS (n. c.)—This city will be the scene of the International Class "A" Aerobics Show, which will be held from Feb. 15 to 23 in the city. These dates have been arranged by the Aero Club of America, which is the sponsor of the show. The show will be held in the city, which is the sponsor of the show. The show will be held in the city, which is the sponsor of the show.

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Donnerstag 1929 to U. S. Time

NEW YORK (n. c.)—Manufacturing rights for the United States and Canada of Doncaster aircraft has been discussed in a confidential manner by the American Aircraft Corporation, Inc. Hamilton, N. Y., according to reports from Doncaster Aircraft Corporation, Inc. Hamilton, N. Y.

Many Attend Legion Air Show at Louisville

LOUISVILLE (n. c.)—More than thirty thousand persons viewed the air circus held here during the national convention of the American Legion. The air show was at Bowman Field, the national airport at Brown Park. The show was the first of its kind in Louisville, and it was a great success. The show was the first of its kind in Louisville, and it was a great success.

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Scores 22,836 Points In 1-6 Waco; Davis Next

By Jack T. Newell
WITH THE NATIONAL AIR TOL
ATLANTA (n. c.)—Livingston scored a total of 22,836 points, or a little more than half of the 50,000 points scheduled, John Armstrong, flying a Waco, being second. Livingston has the highest "figure of merit" of any contestant in the Tour, with his standing 135.64 points as a means of his average competency. He knows better standing than if he had to schedule throughout the journey, he could not fall to win. By 1929, one of the most recent that has covered and within the allowed time arrived Birmingham. One based upon an average score of 85 per cent of the maximum speed allowed by his plane in the tests made in Ford Airport before the start.

Livingston's total number of points now is 22,836 or 2,899 points ahead of the second place, a Waco, flown by Arthur J. Davis. Mr. Davis fell behind his schedule and lost points on his top schedule Fordville, Mo. and New York, Mo., the crash on which had been made was estimated carefully conditions in many of the other contestants. The Davis score at Atlanta was 28,446, with the remainder of the field as follows:

Place	Pilot	Points
1st	Livingston	22,836
2nd	Armstrong	10,000
3rd	Waco	9,937
4th	Waco	9,937
5th	Waco	9,937
6th	Waco	9,937
7th	Waco	9,937
8th	Waco	9,937
9th	Waco	9,937
10th	Waco	9,937
11th	Waco	9,937
12th	Waco	9,937
13th	Waco	9,937
14th	Waco	9,937
15th	Waco	9,937
16th	Waco	9,937
17th	Waco	9,937
18th	Waco	9,937
19th	Waco	9,937
20th	Waco	9,937

Head winds and other unfavorable weather, difficult conditions in the race requiring pilots to maintain at least 25 per cent of their maximum (Continued on Next Page)



WORK WAS BEING done on the new Fairchild seaplane base, situated on the south shore of the St. Lawrence River about a mile below Longport Cove, and about 4 mi from St. Hubert Airport. A headquarters 1,900 ft long and 50 ft wide built at an angle of 150 degrees to the flow of the river, is to be constructed. Fairchild Aircraft, Ltd. owns this area of land fronting on the seaplane base. About 180 acres of this is being developed as a private service and test field. It is being drained and graded, with runways in several directions. The shortest being 1,800 ft long

Northwest Aircraft, Inc.: St. Paul, Minn. \$11,000. Boundary and electronic living area built around the runway is illuminated by a single air light at \$60,000.00.

Construction of semi-hard runways at Bens. Ford, Pittsburgh Pa., is progressing rapidly. Tar-mac surface has been applied to 52,000 sq yd., and 75,000 sq yd more will soon be completed.

B. S. Adams, Chicago, president of

been killed on the line, and no passenger plane has been forced down by engine trouble. The rate of travel this year indicates that about 30-400 persons will have been earned for the twelve months ending Dec. 31, 1929 which would be an increase of 200 per cent over 1925, according to estimates.

Figure 1: A schematic diagram of a single neuron. It shows a cell body (soma) with a nucleus, surrounded by a cell membrane. A dendrite is shown on the left, and an axon is shown on the right, ending in a terminal. The diagram is labeled with 'Dendrite', 'Soma', 'Nucleus', 'Cell membrane', and 'Axon'.



Lowell Goodenbreaking into Lotus gear at 100

Aires, Argentina, to the east is the United States. Buenos Aires signed the country's mail-carrying rights to all countries on the South American. This is the first time since the 19th century that a South American republic has signed a mail-carrying

West Indians, as President Carter said, which means that the rest of the world must consist of the death company with all of which rights.

FOREIGN ACTIVITIES



Regular Postal Rate
Offered for Air Mail

Little Entente Race Winner Used Hornet
PRAGUE (CZECHOSLOVAKIA)—The air show of the Little Entente and Poland was won by the Czechoslovakian Joseph Kalla, flying a Fregat-built "Laser" plane with Pratt & Whitney

Hornet engine, with an average of about 140 mph. There exists in the composition, a

German Subsidy for S.A. Line

English Newspaper Offers Air Scholarships

among between the ages of 17 and all other fees for distribution the value of receiving the "A."

Lufthansa Reports Receipts
BERLIN (GERMANY) — Figures recently released by Deutsche Lufthansa for 1938 receipts show a sharp increase over 1937 receipts.

12.2% on hand at the end of the

Curtis Has Big Season in Maine

A tugboat and flying boat landing device has been developed there in the shape of a platform mounted on an

wheels which run on a 6-degree

W.A.E. Traffic Increases
LOS ANGELES (conty) — Western Air Express planes have handled over 3,190,000 in to date according to estimates by company officials. No estimates of destinations, origin, load

France Helps Local Airport Development

The agreement is for a period of 15 yr; but an extension of the novelty of this form of development programme is made for the Chamber of Commerce each ten years to withdraw. In case this is done the project reverts to the state. For the first five years of the agreement the state subsidizes the

Chamber of Commerce in the event of any losses, within certain limits prescribed by the contract.

Revise French Subsidy Terms
PARIS (Reuters)—Plans for reorganization of French air lines are reported to be under way. A capital of about \$2,400,000, is to be supplied, one third of which would go to Compagnie Internationale De Navigation Aeronautique, owned by French, German, A. & O.

Antenna, (Parana Live) and the remaining third to the government. Companies would be owned on a 30-

N.Y. Rio Line Gets Chile Consent
TAMPA (P.A.)—New York, Rio and Buenos Aires Line has been granted a concession to carry 25 per cent of all Chilean mail from Santiago to Buenos Aires, Argentina, to the West Indies, Central and South America.



Weight-normalized Cardiorespiratory Index (normal value)

wagging, if you please, and when you compare on the strength of any thing, that is a criterion of interest creation. This method will measure time, but it will not a program of developing traits and will tend to develop good race planes as good pilots are developed.

The crowds at the National Races of 1929 were at a loss to know who was making or what race was being run, and the exception of a few events which were correctly stated by the announcer and even he apologized to the crowds by saying "I'll tell you what on ship 123 is just a few minutes as soon as somebody tells me." A crowd with the race that is going on, the ship story and the pilot's name could be placed in full view of everyone. If only four planes were running this would be easy. It was impossible then year, for as one race airplane after another, all with the smallest that the ship told them, used to run race at one time—the five mile course and ten times around, and 90 per cent of the spectators (including myself) were glad when the flag came over. The crowds were more eager to see the West coast team perform and they were fast on the program.

Qualifying trials are necessary to the public, pending they know who is doing the qualifying, etc. In saying as I have suggested, if one separate team would assume to the race thing to qualifying trials but with interest added. The last year's show and the spectators at this year's show were the best ever and a satisfactory show which the show would not have been so pleasant to the spectators standpoint, but it can never approach the standard which it is in this year. All the time and can be seen in any that a person desires to look at any. It is impossible to remember pilot's names and pilot's names just for keeping it once or twice on the radio broadcast. The pilot's name should be better stated with this arrangement, because it would give them more publicity at the public would learn to know them better and remember their names more easily. Every pilot knows each but should be introduced via radio broadcast and this adds to the interest.

Every year the show gets better and better. Cleveland had a wonderful program of events and dignified, wonderful weather, and the officials who put on the show are to be congratulated for such a wonderful arrangement. However, in the year to come, I hope that less seating and less audience stand will be included, and that listening room can be put in that will draw the crowd that is well and that thereby, the air-racing public will be increased. I would like to see more in year very interesting program about air racing.

DAVID CROWEY.

[The shafality between Dr. Crow-

ley's views on racing and those expressed in the article by Edward J. Warner in *AVIATION* for September 28th is striking. It should be pointed out that the consistency of opinion was completely independent as Dr. Crowley's letter was received in this office after Mr. Warner's manuscript was written, but before it was published.—E.J.]

Observations of a Private Owner

TO THE EDITOR:

I am in my early thirties. I've been flying for ten years. I fly for the love of flying.

I began with Aeromarine 40 flying boats, bought from Navy surplus supply while Hans Franklin D. Roosevelt still was President. I joined the Navy. Later I played in open cockpit planes. Some months since I bought a new plane, a new motor, and a new engine, with a J-3 Wright engine. I fly high, or single trip, eight hundred miles, perhaps.

A few days ago, I made a bad landing, bumped my head on a steel beam, was knocked unconscious, but out of the plane, and it promptly flipped over on its back. Neither pilot nor plane was badly damaged. My only accident in ten years. Mine.

With a propeller among grills about 1920 r.p.m., my small airplane is in trouble to about 1850 when I am up; it is about 1800 per hour. Usually I am in no hurry to go anywhere, and at this speed the engine is running smoothly, and so surely can't consider it in the class of a gas engine.

From this flying experience, plus observation, I have drawn these conclusions:

If you really love flying—love the feel of the plane in it (opposed to pilot's consideration of airframe and motor that you can learn to fly, no matter how old you are).

But to make a good pilot you should fly every day. It is far more important than driving an automobile every day to make a good chauffeur. The very speed of the plane requires more attention, quicker decisions, and sharper judgments.

Three things are required in comfortable flying for those like myself who fly for the pleasure of it. (1) A desirable engine (also as available). (2) An absolutely stable plane (also as available). (3) A desirable landing field (also as available). Of the latter there is not one in a dozen fields. Wherever the record of damaged planes and wrecked landing fields is a year. No one owner would drive his automobile fifty miles an hour over the average landing field. But one in the present-day, many an airplane is wrecked.

In June I landed in a field which had the wheels on its own right-angle runners. I chose the one with the

wind although it was over highland on recent years. When the plane stopped, the wheels were in good up to the sides. A quarter was required to land me out. It was advertised as a "landed-over flying field."

Yesterday's airplanes were built for the ground, only they are built for the momentary; however they will be built for the man accustomed to the smooth and comfort of a 3-motor. He has the money, wants the best and can afford it. And the best will include landing fields which will not be built on the ground, but in the air. So I am sure we will soon have for landing fields as much of the large, flat, with runway like city streets, for some of them have a way of giving things down.

Wheels bring me in an angle of flying that I have not seen covered. Usually the airplane's speed is spoken of as the sole reason for its existence. But in its present condition, the wonderful landing available, in every direction, no matter for a right-of-way, or landing, or landing, and design the shortest distance between here and there.

With universally good landing fields we will all be accepting the air force of tomorrow as a monolith, and begin to really appreciate them, coming out very in any direction with confidence. C. FRANKLIN JONES, Washington, D. C.

[Mr. Jones is known to most of our readers as a great authority on selection and a pioneer creator of moving picture equipment. Although never connected with the aeronautical industry he has, in his larger shows, unobtrusively followed flying as an aviator as well.]

Helios and the Government

TO THE EDITOR:

Not only our president, Mr. Coolidge, but all of us as our organizing agent recently the social editorial in *AVIATION* of September 16.

This subject is of great importance to us all as it is in the difficult and almost impossible position of being compared with the United States Government in developing an industry for whose output the government is the only present large user. We find this editorial in *AVIATION* for the first time states the facts as they are and reflects the opinion of a sensible landing field. We are inclined to be prejudiced because it is our company and our industry at stake and for this reason we are fully prepared to find a number of reasons for our opinion. It is actually so.

R. G. LEONARD,
President
The Helios Company,
Lawrence, Kentucky

AVIATION

The Oldest American Aeronautical Magazine

October 19, 1929



AERONAUTICAL ENGINEERING SECTION



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[The shafality between Dr. Crow-

THE PRODUCTION OF

Lift BY Propeller Blades

By MAX M. MUNCK, Dr. Eng., Ph. D.

University of North Carolina

AN analysis of propeller model tests undertaken by the author several years ago¹ confirmed in general the established views about the action of propeller blades, but showed these principles to be satisfactory for the numerical computation of the thrust developed by wing propellers. It was concluded that there existed a large and consistent discrepancy between the thrust observed and the thrust computed regarding the blades as wings; the propeller thrust being always larger than expected. This conclusion is not stated in the mentioned paper, but was reached after the paper had gone to print. Indeed, the paper contains just the opposite conclusion, viz., the statement that the thrust computed and the thrust observed do agree. This latter conclusion was however reached in error and is wrong. The lift created by a propeller blade element and the lift created by the next element within a portion of an element are not considered from each other. It is of scientific interest and of practical value to become clear about the nature of this difference and to find an explanation for it. The author has found such an explanation, and offers it to the reader to the public, together with some useful experimental underpinning to support it. They fully do so. Further studies of the question seem absolutely highly desirable and necessary, before the explanation can be considered as definitely established, and can be used for direct practical conclusions.

Before proceeding to the explanation itself, it is necessary to discuss the nature of the discrepancy requiring such explanation, and to show reasons why such discrepancy becomes apparent subsequent to the publication of an analysis of propeller test data when it was not at the time when this analysis was made. In the analysis, the action of all propeller blade elements was assumed to be replaced by the action of one such element, of suitable area, supposed to be located at the point of average action. Now, the blade elements far away from the propeller axis have a relatively large velocity of motion through the air and therefore contribute relatively more to the creation of thrust than the blade elements near the propeller axis. In consequence, the center of creation of thrust is not located at a point half the propeller radius but further out; probably near 70 per cent of the propeller radius. If, contrary to what is a good assumption for the center of creation of thrust, assuming that if we assume all propeller elements to create their lift under

the same conditions and particularly with the same velocity, as the element at 70 per cent propeller radius, rather than under their actual conditions, we shall obtain by computation a thrust and torque close to the actual thrust and torque of the propeller. Such a position of the center of thrust as at near 70 per cent is indeed generally employed for preliminary computations.

THE element referred to consisted in applying this 70 per cent not only to the shape of the center of thrust (which is not correct) but also to the expression of thrust with respect to α , α (which is wrong). Suppose the propeller to rotate with a certain rpm and to move at the same time with a certain flight velocity. A circulation of thrust by all blade elements takes place; different in general at all of them, and more intense near the axis than close to it, giving rise to the location of the center of application of the resultant total thrust of one blade at about 70 per cent under average conditions. Now suppose the velocity of flight to be less assumed, but the rpm to be increased by a small amount. All blade elements create now a larger thrust (as governed) and we focus our attention on the difference of the new thrust after the increase of the rpm and before the rpm was increased. We are at first inclined to expect the elements near the propeller tip to experience larger differences of thrust than the elements near the hub, both with the same sense of course, far more so before the tangential velocities are larger and so are the increases of this velocity. This argument, however, is now misleading. The increase of lift is governed not only by the increase of velocity, but also by the increase of the angle of attack of the blade elements. This increase of the angle of attack when increasing the rpm is likewise different at the different blade elements, but is a was opposite to velocity variation. A closer examination of the geometrical relations shows that the increase of the angle of attack is larger near the hub than it is near the tip. In consequence the difference of effect on the blade elements has an increase of the rpm due to velocity variation is wiped out, and this effect is even distributed along the entire propeller blade. When speeding up a propeller, the center of the thrust elements added does not coincide with the center of the thrust itself. The latter is near 70 per cent, but the former has to be assumed near the center of the blade, near 50 per cent of the propeller radius.

The mathematical demonstration of these relations requires some geometry and calculus. Their relations are already given in the author's book on aerodynamics, to which we refer the reader who wants to check personally this place of mathematical derivation. The others may accept it on faith.

are already given in the author's book on aerodynamics, to which we refer the reader who wants to check personally this place of mathematical derivation. The others may accept it on faith.

The reader may by now have guessed the error committed in the original analysis of propeller tests. The 70 per cent was taken erroneously for both the center of thrust and the center of application of thrust, whereas the latter should have been taken at 50 per cent. This error resulted in the assumption of too high a velocity for the computation of the increase of thrust, and hence in the computation of too high a slope, which seemed well to agree with the thrust observed. Replacing the necessary computation, by the computation of the thrust of all blade elements, and assuming as these results revealed the error committed.

The propeller analysis repeatedly referred to was performed by plotting the thrust coefficient against the computed average diagram velocity, divided by the flight velocity. Fig. 1 shows three curves obtained in that way. These curves are peculiarly suitable for the analysis because they are straight lines. It is the discovery of such new curves that constitutes scientific progress; the progress consisting not in obtaining a new curve, which can be done easily, but in obtaining a straight line where formerly a very complicated curve was found.

The slope curve, previously straight, obtained in the indicated way, stands in a close relation to the ordinary lift curve of a wing section, obtained by plotting the lift coefficient against the angle of attack. Both are straight and the slope of either can be used for the computation of the slope of the theoretical lift curve referring to a wing of infinite aspect ratio. Proper allowance has to be made for the induced downwash in the one case, and for the diagram velocity, in the case of the propeller. Both considerations require only the knowledge of the geometrical dimensions of either the wing or the propeller; they are easily performed and are explained in detail in the paper and book of the author referred to.

noted theory only. It is about 30 per cent smaller, meaning that a wing produces about 10 per cent less lift than would be expected from merely theoretical arguments. This is a good agreement in view of the differences between the assumptions of the pure theory and the actual conditions, these differences being in favor of a diminished lift. The slope obtained from propeller tests, however, is consistently greater than the theoretical slope, and even more so than the slope obtained from wing tests. It is about 30 per cent larger than the theoretical slope and 40 per cent larger than the wing slope. This shows that propeller blade elements create a lift larger than would be expected from either wing section or theory. We would be willing to abide with two small a lift, assuming that the friction of the air



FIG. 1

diminishes the lift of propellers over some data it diminished the lift of wings. No such arguments can be brought in favor of an excess of lift, however, but it must be concluded that the conditions under which the blade elements work are distinctly different from the conditions of the same elements acting as parts of airfoils.

This point is important. The different conditions are not even likely to confuse their effect to the lift only. All other characteristics can be affected likewise, such as the drag and the maximum lift coefficient. We are confronted with the discovery that we know less about propeller sections than we thought we know. In the light of the discovered discrepancy, we must become detached towards ordinary, small wing tests as far as their application to propeller sections is concerned. Something particular happens in propeller elements that is not found at present with wing model airfoil tests. It may be possible that this particular condition gives a good propeller section if the same section is used as a wing section and vice versa. We have to start the research referring to propeller sections again, and we do not even know the proper way to do this except the obvious, but difficult one to build propellers and try them. If we know the explanation for the discrepancy between the lift of wings and propeller blades, we might derive a way to create the particular propeller condition in wind tunnel work. It may be possible to modify the wind tunnel so as to obtain the same conditions as are occurring with propeller blades, meaning that speed and lift tend to be more intensive the conditions around propeller blades. These thoughts and uncertainty, it is hoped, will serve in the reader the right appreciation of the importance and importance of the explanation we are going to

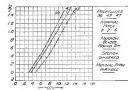


FIG. 2

If the wind explanation of the propeller action is correct, and if the propeller blade element acts like a wing element under the same conditions, the theoretical slope of the lift curve computed from wing measurements and that computed from propeller tests will agree. It fails to do so. The theoretical slope obtained from wing tests is fairly close to the one obtained by the use of the author's

¹Max M. Munck, *Mathematical and Physical Questions for Aircraft Designers*, Part III.

²Max M. Munck, *Analysis of Dornier & Lethy's Propeller Tests*, A.R.C. Technical Paper 51, 1931.

offer, and fill him with the interest and curiosity it deserves.

While studying the question of slope of the lift curve of wings and of the lift curve of propellers, the author realized early that neither curves but now probably closely connected with it. This is the break in the

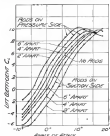


Fig. 1

lift curves of most propellers. The slip curve is a straight line for small values of the thrust only. When a certain thrust is reached, there occurs generally a break in the slip curve and the curve assumes a different slope. This would not be strange if the slope at large thrusts were smaller than at small thrusts, otherwise expressed if the thrust produced at large values were lacking to a higher degree than at small values. Just the opposite occurs. At large values of the thrust coefficient, the slip curve becomes more or less suddenly steeper, meaning that the thrust already unexpectedly large under ordinary conditions, becomes even more so if the thrust coefficient is set at its upper value. The slope at small thrust coefficients is the one used by us for the computation of the theoretical slope, otherwise the discrepancy would become even more pronounced. The combination of these two different facts does not in itself give the explanation wanted but it furnishes a criterion for the correctness of any explanation offered, as such explanation should explain both unexpected facts rather than only one.

After long studies the author arrived at last at an explanation which satisfies this requirement and appeals to common sense. It is probably the lack of uniformity in the velocity of the air in the vicinity of propeller blades that causes the creation of the excess lift. In a wind tunnel, the air velocity is equal at all points except for the action of the wing itself. Not so with a propeller. The propeller blades are working in a slipstream which is in the process of being formed. It is contracted near the propeller, passing velocity parallel to the propeller axis. It is further gaining momentum at right angle to the propeller axis. As a consequence of the latter, the velocity at the section side

(top) of the propeller section is larger than the velocity on the pressure side (bottom) of the propeller section regardless of the propeller blade's own action. The author believes that it is the lack of uniformity of the air velocity that gives rise to the excess lift, and finds that this lack is strengthened by flow irregularities, facts which can be explained and by model tests made to throw light on the effect of lack of uniformity of velocity distribution on the creation of lift of airfoils.

For these tests, the author is indebted to Dr. A. F. Zahm in charge of the wind tunnel at the Washington Navy Yard, for having the tests performed, and to the authorities of the Navy for giving permission to use the wind tunnel for this purpose. As it was too difficult to have the velocity in the wind tunnel uniformly changed, we instead resorted to changing it in a regular way. As shown in Fig. 2, a number of radial ribs one-quarter of an inch in diameter were placed crosswise to the natural air flow, parallel to the wing span, forming a grating of constant spacing. There were such ribs on one side only, either on top of the airfoil or on its bottom. The tests were made with five different airfoils, and grating with different spacing was used. For comparison's sake the tests were also run the ordinary way in a uniform airflow without any grating.

The results are given in the diagrams Figs. 3 and 4, and show above a very marked effect of the ribs on the lift produced. These diagrams give the ordinary lift curve, the lift coefficient plotted against the angle of attack, with the different gratings in place. One and the same grating has no appreciable effect on the slope of each lift curve, but it changes the lift itself markedly. The different lift curves are consistently displaced. The grating on the bottom of the wing section increases the

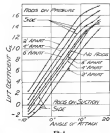


Fig. 2

lift, and a close grating is more effective in this respect than a wide grating. The grating on the top side of the section, as its natural action side, decreases the lift. A similar effect, by the way, was observed with wing models in the presence of propeller in certain tests made in the Goettingen wind tunnel. The propeller in

front of the upper side of the wing increases its lift the propeller below it decreases it. This effect is not very pronounced, as the propeller is so close to a small portion of the span only, but still it is distinct. The result of our model tests furnish a satisfactory explanation of the change of the slope of the lift curve of propellers, although in the tests the slope remains practically unchanged. The conditions around a propeller vary for different thrust coefficients, the velocity of the slipstream being larger at large thrusts. Hence the different points of the propeller lift curve are equivalent to points located on the several curves of Figs. 3 and 4, which, when connected, have a slope different from the slope of the individual curves.

We passed to the break in the slip curve of propellers. Following the law of thrust adopted, the would be explained by a sudden increase of the rotational velocity of the slipstream. This again would



Fig. 3

require a sudden increase of drag of the propeller blades, resulting in a larger torque. This now is exactly what we would expect if the thrust increases to a large value. Portions of the propeller blades are then reaching their blade points and experience large increases of drag. This gives a large torque and a large rearward velocity of the slipstream.

We conclude our paper with the discussion of a very distinct check on the explanation offered. Windtunnels are similar to propellers in their aerodynamic action, but the direction of thrust and torque is reversed with them. The same arguments are used before for propellers apply to windtunnels also, but they lead to the expectation that for windtunnels the slope of the slip curve is smaller than indicated by the simple theory, and that the break in the slip curve is apparent in character to that for propellers, the slope decreasing rather than increasing beyond the break. The author finds only one such windtunnel test available, made by himself some years ago and published in 1923.¹ The slip curve was not drawn at that time, but was drawn only recently after the above conclusions were reached. The curve confirms these conclusions fully, and is so far as the conclusions were reached first, it can be said that these unusual features were foreseen and predicted by the use of the explanation for excess lift of airship propeller blades.

¹Wing W. Break Wind Before Propellers, NACA Technical Note No. 101.

which forms the subject matter of the present paper.

It is up to those actively engaged in aerodynamic research to enter this proposed way of attacking the propeller problem. Their efforts are required for making the propeller designer benefited for the progress of the science and for obtaining better and more efficient propellers through its help.

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Patent No. 1,235,956—Aircraft. Karl Robert Ernst Fiedler, Sigmund, Germany. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,726,466—Aircraft. Maurice H. Black, Brooklyn, N. Y. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,736,351—Aircraft. Randolph F. Hall, Worcester, N. Y. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,726,783—Aircraft. Aircraft-Mounting Means. Eugene Penner, New York, N. Y. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,912—Aircraft. Ray W. Jones, Columbia, Calif. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,726,961—Aircraft. Anthony Horace General Fokker, Amsterdam, Netherlands. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,014—Aircraft. Andrew A. Kicher, Chester, Pa. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,047—Aircraft. Edward M. Bruch, San Jose, Calif. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,877—Landing Gear for Aircraft. Frank Henry Ornduff, Remy, and David Leonard Hall, St. Albans, Hertfordshire, England. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,117—Aircraft. Safety Device. Louis Rosenblatt, Brooklyn, N. Y. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,275—Aircraft. Fuel System. Frederick G. Dugan, Haines, Calif. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,011—Two-Cycle Aircraft Engine. John W. Davis, Washington, D. C. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,379—Propeller. Benjamin L. Elliot, Boston, Conn. Filed October 1938.

Patent No. 1,727,310—Load-Factor Indicator for Aircraft. William Knappe, Akron, Ohio. Filed October 1938.

Thirty-one Design Records Department A.T.C.

During the period of September 22 to October 18, 31 designs have received Aeronautical Type Certificate issued by the Aeronautical Branch, Department of Commerce. The addition of the newly issued designs brings the total of licensed planes up to 233. The designs granted certificates during the 30 day period are products of Fokker, Curtiss, Stinson, Brewster, Northrop, Beechcraft, Fairchild, Cessna, Bellanca, Ford, Duple, Inland, Moog, Stearns, Lockheed, Stinson, Kinner, New Standard, Great Lakes, Grinnell, Kuhlman, Beechcraft, Brewster and Cessna. Any designer or manufacturer of new designs will be found in the directory of the Aeronautical Engineering Section.

Weight Control

By FREDERIC FLAHER
Candidate, District Court

PART II

THE FOLLOWING TABULATIONS represent a fairly complete compilation of weight information on the parts and materials which go into the construction of an aircraft. The weights of engines are not included as these weights may be found tabulated up to date in current issues of *AVIATION*.

With the use of these data and the procedure outlined above the shortcomings in regard to weight in aircraft design can be dispensed.

Materials		
DETAILS	Size per Lot	PRICE
	Each	Per 100
Acetone (Reagent)	97.0	1.00
Acetone (95-100)	95.0	0.80
Acetone Anhydrous (Distilled)	99.5	1.20
Alcohol	95.0	0.70
Chloroform	99.5	1.10
Diethyl Ether	99.5	1.00
Formic Acid	98.0	0.90
Hydrochloric Acid	37.0	0.80
Sulfuric Acid	18.0	0.90
Water	100.0	0.05
Hydrogen Peroxide (30%)	30.0	1.50
Hydrogen Peroxide (60%)	60.0	2.50
Hydrogen Peroxide (70%)	70.0	3.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (90%)	90.0	4.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (100%)	100.0	5.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (110%)	110.0	6.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (120%)	120.0	7.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (130%)	130.0	8.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (140%)	140.0	9.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (150%)	150.0	10.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (160%)	160.0	11.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (170%)	170.0	12.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (180%)	180.0	13.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (190%)	190.0	14.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (200%)	200.0	15.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (210%)	210.0	16.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (220%)	220.0	17.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (230%)	230.0	18.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (240%)	240.0	19.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (250%)	250.0	20.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (260%)	260.0	21.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (270%)	270.0	22.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (280%)	280.0	23.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (290%)	290.0	24.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (300%)	300.0	25.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (310%)	310.0	26.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (320%)	320.0	27.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (330%)	330.0	28.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (340%)	340.0	29.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (350%)	350.0	30.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (360%)	360.0	31.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (370%)	370.0	32.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (380%)	380.0	33.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (390%)	390.0	34.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (400%)	400.0	35.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (410%)	410.0	36.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (420%)	420.0	37.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (430%)	430.0	38.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (440%)	440.0	39.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (450%)	450.0	40.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (460%)	460.0	41.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (470%)	470.0	42.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (480%)	480.0	43.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (490%)	490.0	44.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (500%)	500.0	45.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (510%)	510.0	46.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (520%)	520.0	47.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (530%)	530.0	48.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (540%)	540.0	49.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (550%)	550.0	50.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (560%)	560.0	51.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (570%)	570.0	52.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (580%)	580.0	53.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (590%)	590.0	54.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (600%)	600.0	55.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (610%)	610.0	56.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (620%)	620.0	57.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (630%)	630.0	58.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (640%)	640.0	59.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (650%)	650.0	60.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (660%)	660.0	61.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (670%)	670.0	62.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (680%)	680.0	63.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (690%)	690.0	64.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (700%)	700.0	65.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (710%)	710.0	66.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (720%)	720.0	67.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (730%)	730.0	68.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (740%)	740.0	69.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (750%)	750.0	70.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (760%)	760.0	71.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (770%)	770.0	72.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (780%)	780.0	73.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (790%)	790.0	74.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (800%)	800.0	75.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (810%)	810.0	76.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (820%)	820.0	77.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (830%)	830.0	78.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (840%)	840.0	79.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (850%)	850.0	80.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (860%)	860.0	81.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (870%)	870.0	82.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (880%)	880.0	83.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (890%)	890.0	84.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (900%)	900.0	85.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (910%)	910.0	86.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (920%)	920.0	87.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (930%)	930.0	88.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (940%)	940.0	89.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (950%)	950.0	90.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (960%)	960.0	91.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (970%)	970.0	92.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (980%)	980.0	93.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (990%)	990.0	94.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1000%)	1000.0	95.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1010%)	1010.0	96.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1020%)	1020.0	97.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1030%)	1030.0	98.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1040%)	1040.0	99.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1050%)	1050.0	100.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1060%)	1060.0	101.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1070%)	1070.0	102.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1080%)	1080.0	103.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1090%)	1090.0	104.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1100%)	1100.0	105.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1110%)	1110.0	106.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1120%)	1120.0	107.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1130%)	1130.0	108.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1140%)	1140.0	109.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1150%)	1150.0	110.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1160%)	1160.0	111.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1170%)	1170.0	112.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1180%)	1180.0	113.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1190%)	1190.0	114.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1200%)	1200.0	115.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1210%)	1210.0	116.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1220%)	1220.0	117.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1230%)	1230.0	118.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1240%)	1240.0	119.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1250%)	1250.0	120.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1260%)	1260.0	121.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1270%)	1270.0	122.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1280%)	1280.0	123.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1290%)	1290.0	124.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1300%)	1300.0	125.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1310%)	1310.0	126.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1320%)	1320.0	127.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1330%)	1330.0	128.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1340%)	1340.0	129.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1350%)	1350.0	130.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1360%)	1360.0	131.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1370%)	1370.0	132.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1380%)	1380.0	133.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1390%)	1390.0	134.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1400%)	1400.0	135.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1410%)	1410.0	136.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1420%)	1420.0	137.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1430%)	1430.0	138.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1440%)	1440.0	139.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1450%)	1450.0	140.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1460%)	1460.0	141.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1470%)	1470.0	142.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1480%)	1480.0	143.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1490%)	1490.0	144.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1500%)	1500.0	145.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1510%)	1510.0	146.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1520%)	1520.0	147.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1530%)	1530.0	148.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1540%)	1540.0	149.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1550%)	1550.0	150.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1560%)	1560.0	151.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1570%)	1570.0	152.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1580%)	1580.0	153.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1590%)	1590.0	154.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1600%)	1600.0	155.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1610%)	1610.0	156.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1620%)	1620.0	157.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1630%)	1630.0	158.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1640%)	1640.0	159.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1650%)	1650.0	160.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1660%)	1660.0	161.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1670%)	1670.0	162.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1680%)	1680.0	163.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1690%)	1690.0	164.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1700%)	1700.0	165.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1710%)	1710.0	166.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1720%)	1720.0	167.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1730%)	1730.0	168.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1740%)	1740.0	169.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1750%)	1750.0	170.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1760%)	1760.0	171.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1770%)	1770.0	172.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1780%)	1780.0	173.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1790%)	1790.0	174.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1800%)	1800.0	175.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1810%)	1810.0	176.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1820%)	1820.0	177.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1830%)	1830.0	178.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1840%)	1840.0	179.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1850%)	1850.0	180.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1860%)	1860.0	181.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1870%)	1870.0	182.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1880%)	1880.0	183.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1890%)	1890.0	184.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1900%)	1900.0	185.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1910%)	1910.0	186.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1920%)	1920.0	187.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1930%)	1930.0	188.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1940%)	1940.0	189.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1950%)	1950.0	190.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1960%)	1960.0	191.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1970%)	1970.0	192.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1980%)	1980.0	193.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (1990%)	1990.0	194.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2000%)	2000.0	195.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2010%)	2010.0	196.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2020%)	2020.0	197.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2030%)	2030.0	198.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2040%)	2040.0	199.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2050%)	2050.0	200.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2060%)	2060.0	201.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2070%)	2070.0	202.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2080%)	2080.0	203.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2090%)	2090.0	204.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2100%)	2100.0	205.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2110%)	2110.0	206.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2120%)	2120.0	207.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2130%)	2130.0	208.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2140%)	2140.0	209.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2150%)	2150.0	210.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2160%)	2160.0	211.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2170%)	2170.0	212.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2180%)	2180.0	213.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2190%)	2190.0	214.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2200%)	2200.0	215.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2210%)	2210.0	216.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2220%)	2220.0	217.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2230%)	2230.0	218.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2240%)	2240.0	219.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2250%)	2250.0	220.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2260%)	2260.0	221.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2270%)	2270.0	222.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2280%)	2280.0	223.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2290%)	2290.0	224.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2300%)	2300.0	225.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2310%)	2310.0	226.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2320%)	2320.0	227.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2330%)	2330.0	228.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2340%)	2340.0	229.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2350%)	2350.0	230.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2360%)	2360.0	231.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2370%)	2370.0	232.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2380%)	2380.0	233.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2390%)	2390.0	234.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2400%)	2400.0	235.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2410%)	2410.0	236.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2420%)	2420.0	237.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2430%)	2430.0	238.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2440%)	2440.0	239.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2450%)	2450.0	240.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2460%)	2460.0	241.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2470%)	2470.0	242.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2480%)	2480.0	243.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2490%)	2490.0	244.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2500%)	2500.0	245.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2510%)	2510.0	246.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2520%)	2520.0	247.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2530%)	2530.0	248.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2540%)	2540.0	249.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2550%)	2550.0	250.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2560%)	2560.0	251.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2570%)	2570.0	252.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2580%)	2580.0	253.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2590%)	2590.0	254.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2600%)	2600.0	255.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2610%)	2610.0	256.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2620%)	2620.0	257.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2630%)	2630.0	258.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2640%)	2640.0	259.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2650%)	2650.0	260.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2660%)	2660.0	261.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2670%)	2670.0	262.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2680%)	2680.0	263.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2690%)	2690.0	264.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2700%)	2700.0	265.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2710%)	2710.0	266.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2720%)	2720.0	267.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2730%)	2730.0	268.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2740%)	2740.0	269.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2750%)	2750.0	270.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2760%)	2760.0	271.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2770%)	2770.0	272.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2780%)	2780.0	273.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2790%)	2790.0	274.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2800%)	2800.0	275.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2810%)	2810.0	276.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2820%)	2820.0	277.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2830%)	2830.0	278.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2840%)	2840.0	279.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2850%)	2850.0	280.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2860%)	2860.0	281.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2870%)	2870.0	282.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2880%)	2880.0	283.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2890%)	2890.0	284.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2900%)	2900.0	285.00
Hydrogen Peroxide (2910%)	2910.0	286.00
Hydrogen Pero		

[illegible]

NEMA					
Groups		Weight per Gram Force			Control
		Red Kerman Baker	White Kerman Baker	Grey Kerman Baker	
10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
15	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
20	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
25	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
30	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
35	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
40	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
45	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
55	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
65	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
70	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
75	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
80	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
85	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
90	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
95	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
100	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
105	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
110	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
115	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
120	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
125	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
130	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
135	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
140	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
145	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
150	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
155	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
160	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
165	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
170	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
175	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
180	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
185	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
190	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
195	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
200	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
205	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
210	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
215	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
220	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
225	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
230	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
235	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
240	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
245	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
250	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
255	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
260	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
265	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
270	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
275	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
280	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
285	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
290	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
295	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
300	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
305	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
310	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
315	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
320	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
325	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
330	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
335	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
340	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
345	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
350	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
355	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
360	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
365	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
370	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
375	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
380	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
385	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
390	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
395	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
400	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
405	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
410	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
415	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
420	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
425	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
430	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
435	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
440	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
445	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
450	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
455	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
460	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
465	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
470	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
475	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
480	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
485	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
490	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
495	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
500	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
505	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
510	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
515	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
520	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
525	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
530	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
535	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
540	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
545	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
550	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
555	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
560	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
565	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
570	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
575	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
580	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
585	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
590	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
595	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
600	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
605	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
610	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
615	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
620	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
625	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
630	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
635	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
640	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
645	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
650	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
655	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
660	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
665	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
670	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
675	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
680	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
685	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
690	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
695	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
700	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
705	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
710	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
715	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
720	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
725	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
730	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
735	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
740	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
745	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
750	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
755	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
760	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
765	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
770	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
775	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
780	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
785	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
790	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
795	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
800	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
805	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
810	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
815	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
820	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
825	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
830	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
835	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
840	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
845	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
850	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
855	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
860	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
865	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
870	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
875	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
880	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
885	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
890	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
895	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
900	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
905	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
910	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
915	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
920	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
925	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
930	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
935	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
940	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
945	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
950	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
955	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
960	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
965	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
970	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
975	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
980	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
985	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
990	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
995	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
1000	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	

[illegible]AVIATION
General, PL 86

PLATE-PISTON AND TIE			SAND-GLASS GLASS-ALUMINUM-GLASS		
Flowrate (g/min)	ΔT (°C)	$\Delta T/\Delta x$ (°C/cm)	Flowrate (g/min)	Effective thermal conductivity (W/m°C)	per day efficiency (%)
100	1.0	1.0	100	1.0	1.0
200	2.0	2.0	200	2.0	2.0
300	3.0	3.0	300	3.0	3.0
400	4.0	4.0	400	4.0	4.0
500	5.0	5.0	500	5.0	5.0
600	6.0	6.0	600	6.0	6.0
700	7.0	7.0	700	7.0	7.0
800	8.0	8.0	800	8.0	8.0
900	9.0	9.0	900	9.0	9.0
1000	10.0	10.0	1000	10.0	10.0

Run	Feed	Prod	Loss	Atom Econ	Dist	Atom Econ	Dist
1	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
2	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
3	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
4	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
5	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
6	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
7	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
8	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
9	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
10	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
11	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
12	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
13	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
14	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
15	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
16	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
17	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
18	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
19	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
20	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
21	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
22	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
23	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
24	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
25	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
26	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
27	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
28	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
29	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
30	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
31	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
32	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
33	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
34	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
35	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
36	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
37	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
38	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
39	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
40	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
41	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
42	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
43	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
44	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
45	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
46	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
47	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
48	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
49	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
50	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
51	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
52	100	100	0	100	100	100	100
53	100	100	0	100	100	100	100

MATERIAL—MISCELLANEOUS	
Catalyst	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb. titanium, 97% pure Triphenyl 1 lb. per 400 lb.
Slime	Addition—400 lbs. quality 4 lb. to 400 lb. 1 lb. to 400 lb. 1 lb. to 400 lb. Addition—400 lbs. quality 4 lb. to 400 lb., 4 lb. to 400 lb. 1 lb. to 400 lb. Addition—400 lbs. quality 4 lb. to 400 lb., 4 lb. to 400 lb. 1 lb. to 400 lb.
Ammonia	Addition—400 lbs. quality 4 lb. to 400 lb., 4 lb. to 400 lb. 1 lb. to 400 lb.

Group	Unaffected limb	Thickened	Atro. per ft.
Water			20 14 1.4
Location position	15 lbs. per sq. ft.	100 lbs. per sq. ft.	
		Feet	Strength Pounds
Walking (feet)			100 100 0.0
Feet	Monomorph. Cactus	Amphibian	Feet (sq. ft.)

[illegible]

FRESH-WATER BARN AND TUBES		Salt-Water Barn		Tubing-Salt Water	
Year	Days	Year	Days	Year	Days
(1900-1901)	(1902-1903)	(1904-1905)	(1906-1907)	(1908-1909)	(1910-1911)
1900	1901	1904	1905	1908	1909
1902	1903	1906	1907	1910	1911
1904	1905	1908	1909	1912	1913
1906	1907	1910	1911	1914	1915
1908	1909	1912	1913	1916	1917
1910	1911	1914	1915	1918	1919
1912	1913	1916	1917	1920	1921
1914	1915	1918	1919	1922	1923
1916	1917	1920	1921	1924	1925
1918	1919	1922	1923	1926	1927
1920	1921	1924	1925	1928	1929
1922	1923	1926	1927	1930	1931
1924	1925	1928	1929	1932	1933
1926	1927	1930	1931	1934	1935
1928	1929	1932	1933	1936	1937
1930	1931	1934	1935	1938	1939
1932	1933	1936	1937	1940	1941
1934	1935	1938	1939	1942	1943
1936	1937	1940	1941	1944	1945
1938	1939	1942	1943	1946	1947
1940	1941	1944	1945	1948	1949
1942	1943	1946	1947	1950	1951
1944	1945	1948	1949	1952	1953
1946	1947	1950	1951	1954	1955
1948	1949	1952	1953	1956	1957
1950	1951	1954	1955	1958	1959
1952	1953	1956	1957	1960	1961
1954	1955	1958	1959	1962	1963
1956	1957	1960	1961	1964	1965
1958	1959	1962	1963	1966	1967
1960	1961	1964	1965	1968	1969
1962	1963	1966	1967	1970	1971
1964	1965	1968	1969	1972	1973
1966	1967	1970	1971	1974	1975
1968	1969	1972	1973	1976	1977
1970	1971	1974	1975	1978	1979
1972	1973	1976	1977	1980	1981
1974	1975	1978	1979	1982	1983
1976	1977	1980	1981	1984	1985
1978	1979	1982	1983	1986	1987
1980	1981	1984	1985	1988	1989
1982	1983	1986	1987	1990	1991
1984	1985	1988	1989	1992	1993
1986	1987	1990	1991	1994	1995
1988	1989	1992	1993	1996	1997
1990	1991	1994	1995	1998	1999
1992	1993	1996	1997	2000	2001
1994	1995	1998	1999	2002	2003
1996	1997	2000	2001	2004	2005
1998	1999	2002	2003	2006	2007
2000	2001	2004	2005	2008	2009
2002	2003	2006	2007	2010	2011
2004	2005	2008	2009	2012	2013
2006	2007	2010	2011	2014	2015
2008	2009	2012	2013	2016	2017
2010	2011	2014	2015	2018	2019
2012	2013	2016	2017	2020	2021
2014	2015	2018	2019	2022	2023

THE ROUGH AND THE SMOOTH				
Single of Via Verde per Inch.				
Size	Standard Length	Overall Length		Weight of the Two-wire
		Standard	Special	
40-100	1.000	1.25	1.50	15.1
40-125	1.000	1.50	1.75	17.1
40-150	1.000	1.75	2.00	19.1
40-175	1.000	2.00	2.25	21.1
40-200	1.000	2.25	2.50	23.1
40-225	1.000	2.50	2.75	25.1
40-250	1.000	2.75	3.00	27.1
40-275	1.000	3.00	3.25	29.1
40-300	1.000	3.25	3.50	31.1
40-325	1.000	3.50	3.75	33.1
40-350	1.000	3.75	4.00	35.1
40-375	1.000	4.00	4.25	37.1
40-400	1.000	4.25	4.50	39.1
40-425	1.000	4.50	4.75	41.1
40-450	1.000	4.75	5.00	43.1
40-475	1.000	5.00	5.25	45.1
40-500	1.000	5.25	5.50	47.1
40-525	1.000	5.50	5.75	49.1
40-550	1.000	5.75	6.00	51.1
40-575	1.000	6.00	6.25	53.1
40-600	1.000	6.25	6.50	55.1
40-625	1.000	6.50	6.75	57.1
40-650	1.000	6.75	7.00	59.1
40-675	1.000	7.00	7.25	61.1
40-700	1.000	7.25	7.50	63.1
40-725	1.000	7.50	7.75	65.1
40-750	1.000	7.75	8.00	67.1
40-775	1.000	8.00	8.25	69.1
40-800	1.000	8.25	8.50	71.1
40-825	1.000	8.50	8.75	73.1
40-850	1.000	8.75	9.00	75.1
40-875	1.000	9.00	9.25	77.1
40-900	1.000	9.25	9.50	79.1
40-925	1.000	9.50	9.75	81.1
40-950	1.000	9.75	10.00	83.1
40-975	1.000	10.00	10.25	85.1
40-1000	1.000	10.25	10.50	87.1
40-1025	1.000	10.50	10.75	89.1
40-1050	1.000	10.75	11.00	91.1
40-1075	1.000	11.00	11.25	93.1
40-1100	1.000	11.25	11.50	95.1
40-1125	1.000	11.50	11.75	97.1
40-1150	1.000	11.75	12.00	99.1
40-1175	1.000	12.00	12.25	101.1
40-1200	1.000	12.25	12.50	103.1
40-1225	1.000	12.50	12.75	105.1
40-1250	1.000	12.75	13.00	107.1
40-1275	1.000	13.00	13.25	109.1
40-1300	1.000	13.25	13.50	111.1
40-1325	1.000	13.50	13.75	113.1
40-1350	1.000	13.75	14.00	115.1
40-1375	1.000	14.00	14.25	117.1
40-1400	1.000	14.25	14.50	119.1
40-1425	1.000	14.50	14.75	121.1
40-1450	1.000	14.75	15.00	123.1
40-1475	1.000	15.00	15.25	125.1
40-1500	1.000	15.25	15.50	127.1
40-1525	1.000	15.50	15.75	129.1
40-1550	1.000	15.75	16.00	131.1
40-1575	1.000	16.00	16.25	133.1
40-1600	1.000	16.25	16.50	135.1
40-1625	1.000	16.50	16.75	137.1
40-1650	1.000	16.75	17.00	139.1
40-1675	1.000	17.00	17.25	141.1
40-1700	1.000	17.25	17.50	143.1
40-1725	1.000	17.50	17.75	145.1
40-1750	1.000	17.75	18.00	147.1
40-1775	1.000	18.00	18.25	149.1
40-1800	1.000	18.25	18.50	151.1
40-1825	1.000	18.50	18.75	153.1
40-1850	1.000	18.75	19.00	155.1
40-1875	1.000	19.00	19.25	157.1
40-1900	1.000	19.25	19.50	159.1
40-1925	1.000	19.50	19.75	161.1
40-1950	1.000	19.75	20.00	163.1
40-1975	1.000	20.00	20.25	165.1
40-2000	1.000	20.25	20.50	167.1
40-2025	1.000	20.50	20.75	169.1
40-2050	1.000	20.75	21.00	171.1
40-2075	1.000	21.00	21.25	173.1
40-2100	1.000	21.25	21.50	175.1
40-2125	1.000	21.50	21.75	177.1
40-2150	1.000	21.75	22.00	179.1
40-2175	1.000	22.00	22.25	181.1
40-2200	1.000	22.25	22.50	183.1
40-2225	1.000	22.50	22.75	185.1
40-2250	1.000	22.75	23.00	187.1
40-2275	1.000	23.00	23.25	189.1
40-2300	1.000	23.25	23.50	191.1
40-2325	1.000	23.50	23.75	193.1
40-2350	1.000	23.75	24.00	195.1
40-2375	1.000	24.00	24.25	197.1
40-2400	1.000	24.25	24.50	199.1
40-2425	1.000	24.50	24.75	201.1
40-2450	1.000	24.75	25.00	203.1
40-2475	1.000	25.00	25.25	205.1
40-2500	1.000	25.25	25.50	207.1
40-2525	1.000	25.50	25.75	209.1
40-2550	1.000	25.75	26.00	211.1
40-2575	1.000	26.00	26.25	213.1
40-2600	1.000	26.25	26.50	215.1
40-2625	1.000	26.50	26.75	217.1
40-2650	1.000	26.75	27.00	219.1
40-2675	1.000	27.00	27.25	221.1
40-2700	1.000	27.25	27.50	223.1
40-2725	1.000	27.50	27.75	225.1
40-2750	1.000	27.75	28.00	227.1
40-2775	1.000	28.00	28.25	229.1
40-2800	1.000	28.25	28.50	231.1
40-2825	1.000	28.50	28.75	233.1
40-2850	1.000	28.75	29.00	235.1
40-2875	1.000	29.00	29.25	237.1
40-2900	1.000	29.25	29.50	239.1
40-2925	1.000	29.50	29.75	241.1
40-2950	1.000	29.75	30.00	243.1
40-2975	1.000	30.00	30.25	245.1
40-3000	1.000	30.25	30.50	247.1
40-3025	1.000	30.50	30.75	249.1
40-3050	1.000	30.75	31.00	251.1
40-3075	1.000	31.00	31.25	253.1
40-3100	1.000	31.25	31.50	255.1
40-3125	1.000	31.50	31.75	257.1
40-3150	1.000	31.75	32.00	259.1
40-3175	1.000	32.00	32.25	261.1
40-3200	1.000	32.25	32.50	263.1
40-3225	1.000	32.50	32.75	265.1
40-3250	1.000	32.75	33.00	267.1
40-3275	1.000	33.00	33.25	269.1
40-3300	1.000	33.25	33.50	271.1
40-3325	1.000	33.50	33.75	273.1
40-3350	1.000	33.75	34.00	275.1
40-3375	1.000	34.00	34.25	277.1
40-3400	1.000	34.25	34.50	279.1
40-3425	1.000	34.50	34.75	281.1
40-3450	1.000	34.75	35.00	283.1
40-3475	1.000	35.00	35.25	285.1
40-3500	1.000	35.25	35.50	287.1
40-3525	1.000	35.50	35.75	289.1
40-3550	1.000	35.75	36.00	291.1
40-3575	1.000	36.00	36.25	293.1
40-3600	1.000	36.25	36.50	295.1
40-3625	1.000	36.50	36.75	297.1
40-3650	1.000	36.75	37.00	299.1
40-3675	1.000	37.00	37.25	301.1
40-3700	1.000	37.25	37.50	303.1
40-3725	1.000	37.50	37.75	305.1
40-3750	1.000	37.75	38.00	307.1
40-3775	1.000	38.00	38.25	309.1
40-3800	1.000	38.25	38.50	311.1
40-3825	1.000	38.50	38.75	313.1
40-3850	1.000	38.75	39.00	315.1
40-3875	1.000	39.00	39.25	317.1
40-3900	1.000	39.25	39.50	319.1
40-3925	1.000	39.50	39.75	321.1
40-3950	1.000	39.75	40.00	323.1
40-3975	1.000	40.00	40.25	325.1
40-4000	1.000	40.25	40.50	327.1
40-4025	1.000	40.50	40.75	329.1
40-4050	1.000	40.75	41.00	331.1
40-4075	1.000	41.00	41.25	333.1
40-4100	1.000	41.25	41.50	335.1
40-4125	1.000	41.50	41.75	337.1
40-4150	1.000	41.75	42.00	339.1
40-4175	1.000	42.00	42.25	341.1
40-4200	1.000	42.25	42.50	343.1
40-4225	1.000	42.50	42.75	345.1
40-4250	1.000	42.75	43.00	347.1
40-4275	1.000	43.00	43.25	349.1
40-4300	1.000	43.25	43.50	351.1
40-4325	1.000	43.50	43.75	353.1
40-4350	1.000	43.75	44.00	355.1
40-4375	1.000	44.00	44.25	357.1
40-4400	1.000	44.25	44.50	359.1
40-4425	1.000	44.50	44.75	361.1
40-4450	1.000	44.75	45.00	363.1
40-4475	1.000	45.00	45.25	365.1
40-4500	1.000	45.25	45.50	367.1
40-4525	1.000	45.50	45.75	369.1
40-4550	1.000	45.75	46.00	371.1
40-4575	1.000	46.00	46.25	373.1
40-4600	1.000	46.25	46.50	375.1
40-4625	1.000	46.50	46.75	377.1
40-4650	1.000	46.75	47.00	379.1
40-4675	1.000	47.00	47.25	381.1
40-4700	1.000	47.25	47.50	383.1
40-4725	1.000	47.50	47.75	385.1
40-4750	1.000	47.75	48.00	387.1
40-4775	1.000	48.00	48.25	389.1
40-4800	1.000	48.25	48.50	391.1
40-4825	1.000	48.50	48.75	393.1
40-4850	1.000	48.75	49.00	395.1
40-4875	1.000	49.00	49.25	397.1
40-4900	1.000	49.25	49.50	399.1
40-4925	1.000	49.50	49.75	401.1
40-4950	1.000	49.75	50.00	403.1
40-4975	1.000	50.00	50.25	405.1
40-5000	1.000	50.25	50.50	407.1
40-5025	1.000	50.50	50.75	409.1
40-5050	1.000	50.75	51.00	411.1
40-5075	1.000	51.00	51.25	413.1
40-5100	1.000	51.25	51.50	415.1
40-5125	1.000	51.50	51.75	417.1
40-5150	1.000	51.75	52.00	419.1
40-5175	1.000	52.00	52.25	421.1
40-5200	1.000	52.25	52.50	423.1
40-5225	1.000	52.50	52.75	425.1
40-5250	1.000	52.75	53.00	427.1
40-5275	1.000	53.00	53.25	429.1
40-5300	1.000	53.25	53.50	431.1
40-5325	1.000	53.50	53.75	433.1
40-5350	1.000	53.75	54.00	435.1
40-5375	1.000	54.00	54.25	437.1
40-5400	1.000	54.25	54.50	439.1
40-5425	1.000	54.50	54.75	441.1
40-5450	1.000	54.75	55.00	443.1
40-5475	1.000	55.00	55.25	445.1
40-5500	1.000	55.25	55.50	447.1
40-5525	1.000	55.50	55.75	449.1
40-5550	1.000	55.75	56.00	451.1
40-5575	1.000	56.00	56.25	453.1
40-5600	1.000	56.25	56.50	455.1
40-5625	1.000	56.50	56.75	457.1

Market Index	Cable-Plus and Ford Index		Cable-Plus and Fox Index		Cable-Plus Index
	Index	Range	Index	Range	
100	540	539	539	539	539
1,000	592	591	591	591	591
1,500	649	647	649	647	647
2,000	713	712	713	712	712
2,500	780	779	780	779	779
3,000	848	847	848	847	847
3,500	917	916	917	916	916
4,000	987	986	987	986	986
4,500	1,058	1,057	1,058	1,057	1,057
5,000	1,130	1,129	1,130	1,129	1,129

THUNDER		FISH-FLATHEAD (ECHO)	
Order Number	Approximate Depth (m)	Size	Weight (kg) Approximate
1	100	3	1000
2	100	4	100
3	100	5	100
4	100	6	100
5	100	7	100
6	100	8	100
7	100	9	100
8	100	10	100
9	100	11	100
10	100	12	100
11	100	13	100
12	100	14	100
13	100	15	100
14	100	16	100
15	100	17	100
16	100	18	100
17	100	19	100
18	100	20	100
19	100	21	100
20	100	22	100
21	100	23	100
22	100	24	100
23	100	25	100
24	100	26	100
25	100	27	100
26	100	28	100
27	100	29	100
28	100	30	100
29	100	31	100
30	100	32	100
31	100	33	100
32	100	34	100
33	100	35	100
34	100	36	100
35	100	37	100
36	100	38	100
37	100	39	100
38	100	40	100
39	100	41	100
40	100	42	100
41	100	43	100
42	100	44	100
43	100	45	100
44	100	46	100
45	100	47	100
46	100	48	100
47	100	49	100
48	100	50	100
49	100	51	100
50	100	52	100
51	100	53	100
52	100	54	100
53	100	55	100
54	100	56	100
55	100	57	100
56	100	58	100
57	100	59	100
58	100	60	100
59	100	61	100
60	100	62	100
61	100	63	100
62	100	64	100
63	100	65	100
64	100	66	100
65	100	67	100
66	100	68	100
67	100	69	100
68	100	70	100
69	100	71	100
70	100	72	100
71	100	73	100
72	100	74	100
73	100	75	100
74	100	76	100
75	100	77	100
76	100	78	100
77	100	79	100
78	100	80	100
79	100	81	100
80	100	82	100
81	100	83	100
82	100	84	100
83	100	85	100
84	100	86	100
85	100	87	100
86	100	88	100
87	100	89	100
88	100	90	100
89	100	91	100
90	100	92	100
91	100	93	100
92	100	94	100
93	100	95	100
94	100	96	100
95	100	97	100
96	100	98	100
97	100	99	100
98	100	100	10

Handy and Easy to Read	Weight Gain
0.00	0.00
1.00	0.00
2.00	0.00
3.00	0.00
4.00	0.00
5.00	0.00
6.00	0.00
7.00	0.00
8.00	0.00
9.00	0.00
10.00	0.00

STYRENE-AND-CAPROLACTONE- BLOCKS	Weight % of PCL	Weight % of PCL	Weight % of PCL
100	100	100	100
90	90	90	90
80	80	80	80
70	70	70	70
60	60	60	60
50	50	50	50
40	40	40	40
30	30	30	30
20	20	20	20
10	10	10	10
0	0	0	0

Landing Gear

WHEELS—TYRES—TYRES

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Cabin Chairs, Seats, and Cushions

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WIRE AND CABLE (AIRCRAFT)

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TECHNICAL REVIEWS

N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 322, Investigation of the Flow in Open-Throat Wind Tunnels, by Stanton N. J. A. Technical Report No. 322, Investigation of the Flow in Open-Throat Wind Tunnels, by Stanton N. J.

The tests were conducted on the six-inch wind tunnel of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics during May and June, 1935, to form a part of a research on open throat wind tunnels. The primary object of this part of the research was to study a type of air pollution which has been encountered in open throat tunnels, and to find the most satisfactory means of eliminating such pollution. In order to do this it was necessary to study the effects of different variables on all of the important characteristics of the tunnel. This paper gives not only the results of the study of air pollution and methods of eliminating them, but also the effects of changing the exit cone diameter and flow and the effects of air leakage from the return passage. It was found that the air pollution in the six inch wind tunnel could be practically eliminated by using a moderately large flow in the exit cone in conjunction with leakage introduced by means of holes in the exit cone somewhat aft of its maximum diameter.

N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 321, Fuel Vapor Pressure and the Relating of Vapor Pressure to the Prediction of Fuel for Combustion in Fuel Injection Engines, by Wm. F. Jacobson and A. M. Rothrock.

The investigation on the vapor pressures of fuels was conducted at the Langley Memorial Aeronautical Laboratory at Langley Field, Va., in connection with the general research on combustion in fuel injection engines. The purpose of the investigation was to study the effects of high temperatures such as exist during the first stages of injection on the vapor pressure of several fuels and certain fuel mixtures, and the relation of these vapor pressures to the preparation of the fuel for combustion in high speed fuel injection engines.

It was found that the vapor pressures of the fuels remained equally at high temperatures, the rate of pressure increase becoming greater as the temperatures approached the critical value. Beyond the critical temperature, the rate of pressure increase was constant except at one or more temperatures in the case of certain fuels and their vapors in which chemical changes took place. The chemical changes in some of the fuels were such that the cooling curves were distinctly different from those

obtained during the heating periods. Permeation gases were present during the heating and cooling periods in the case of the slush, gasoline, kerosene, and Diesel engine fuel oil so that the fuels removed from the tanks were materially different from those placed in it. The vapor pressure of the fuels differed from each other considerably methyl alcohol having the highest vapor pressure, 4,370 pounds per square inch, and Diesel engine fuel oil the lowest, 140 pounds per square inch, for the maximum temperatures investigated, approximately 330 deg. F.

The data for the vapor pressure of the fuels at high temperatures indicate the compression temperatures required to produce rapid vaporization of the injected fuel for combustion.

N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 318, Speed and Directional Tolerances of U.S.S. Los Angeles, by S. J. DeVore and C. P. Burgess.

The trials reported herein were conducted by the Bureau of Aeronautics and the Navy Department for the purpose of determining accuracy of the speed and resistance of the U.S.S. Los Angeles with and without water recovery apparatus, and to clear up the apparent discrepancies between the speeds attained in service and in the original trials in Germany.

The trials proved very conclusively that the water recovery apparatus increases the resistance about 20 per cent which is serious, and shows the importance of developing a type of recovery having less resistance.

Between the American and German speed trials without water recovery there remained an unexplained discrepancy of nearly 6 per cent in speed at a given rate of engine revolutions. Wearing of the propeller blades and small canting errors of observation seem the most probable causes of the discrepancy.

It was found that the compressive resistance coefficients C , are 0.0342 and 0.0293 without and with water recovery apparatus, respectively. The corresponding values of the propulsive coefficient K , are 56.7 and 44.6. If there is any error in these figures, it is probably in a slight overestimate of C , and an underestimate of K . The measurement errors are about actually less than 5 per cent.

No scale effect was detected indicating variation of C with respect to velocity.

Integration of the THEORETICAL EXPRESSION FOR Drag

By CHARLES BOEHMELIN

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A GREAT deal of material has been written on the subject of aerodynamics, but very little has been written explaining the mathematics involved. In this article, I hope to bring before the reader the explanation of the process of integrating a certain expression which occurs in the development of the expression for the theoretical drag of an airfoil.

In NACA Technical Report, No. 156, Part II, is given equation (37) which reads

$$w = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-1}^{+1} \frac{d\Gamma}{dX} \frac{dX}{X' - X} \quad (4)$$

where w is the downward component of the velocity at the trailing edge of the wing at a distance X' from the left wing tip

b = the span of the wing

Γ = the circulation

X = the running co-ordinate measured from the left wing tip.

In order to simplify this problem Prandtl places the origin of X at the center of the wing in the trailing edge, and supposes an elliptical distribution of the circulation simply because this works out better. The wing now extends a distance $\frac{b}{2}$ to the right and left of the origin, hence, if Γ_0 be circulation at the center of the wing, the equation for this elliptical distribution will be:

$$\left(\frac{X}{\frac{b}{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Gamma}{\Gamma_0}\right)^2 = 1.$$

Solving this equation for Γ results in

$$\Gamma = \Gamma_0 \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{X}{\frac{b}{2}}\right)^2}$$

The radical sign really demands a \pm sign, but in this development only the positive half of the ellipse is used. Differentiating this expression gives:

$$\frac{d\Gamma}{dX} = \Gamma_0 \left[1 - \left(\frac{X}{\frac{b}{2}}\right)^2 \right]^{-1/2} \left[-\frac{2X}{\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2} \right]$$

which when simplified results in

$$\frac{d\Gamma}{dX} = \frac{\Gamma_0}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{-1}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{X}{\frac{b}{2}}\right)^2}}$$

The algebraic steps have been omitted and the reader assumes that the reader has the mathematical training of the average engineer. Substituting this result into

equation (1) and redefining the limits of the above integral to conform to the new position of the origin, equation (1) becomes:

$$w = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{+\frac{b}{2}} \frac{\frac{\Gamma_0}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{-1}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{X}{\frac{b}{2}}\right)^2}}}{X' - X} dX$$

X' is now measured from the center of the wing at the trailing edge to the position where the downward component w of the velocity is considered. The constant terms in the above integral may be placed on the outside of the integral sign thus:

$$w = \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi b} \int_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{+\frac{b}{2}} \frac{X dX}{(X' - X) \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{X}{\frac{b}{2}}\right)^2}} \quad (2)$$

The problem is now to integrate

$$\int_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{+\frac{b}{2}} \frac{X dX}{(X' - X) \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{X}{\frac{b}{2}}\right)^2}}$$

The constant quantity $\frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi b}$ has been set aside for the present. The above integral can now be greatly simplified if a new variable t be substituted for X so that

$$t = \frac{2X}{b} \quad \text{or} \quad X = \frac{b}{2} t$$

When X is equal to the limits $+\frac{b}{2}$ and $-\frac{b}{2}$, t takes

on the values $+1$ and -1 , hence on substitution the expression becomes

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} \frac{\frac{b}{2} t d\left(\frac{b}{2} t\right)}{\left(X' - \frac{b}{2} t\right) \sqrt{1 - t^2}}$$

which an algebraic simplification reduces to:

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} \frac{t dt}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} \quad (3)$$

where $\frac{2X'}{b}$ has been replaced by t'

A discussion of the integral is now necessary. It will be noted that when t is equal to -1 or $+1$ or t' , the integrand becomes infinite, i.e., the denominator

becomes zero and hence the integral is meaningless. It will be noticed also that since X' marks a position on

the wing it will be less than $\frac{b}{2}$ and hence t' will be less

than $+1$ and moderately greater than -1 or is mathematically $-1 < t' < +1$. This makes it necessary to integrate across three points, viz., -1 , t' and $+1$, where the integrand becomes infinite. To integrate across these points some small variable such as ϵ should be chosen, and the principle value of the integral will be obtained when ϵ is allowed to approach zero. In order that only one of these small variables shall occur in each integral, an intermediate point t_0 between -1 and t' should be chosen and a like point t_1 between t' and $+1$. This will give four integrals such as (omitting the integrand)

$$\int_{-1-\epsilon}^{-1+\epsilon} + \int_{t_0-\epsilon}^{t_0+\epsilon} + \int_{t_1-\epsilon}^{t_1+\epsilon} + \int_{t_1-\epsilon}^{+1-\epsilon}$$

These limits can be represented graphically by a line as shown in Fig. 1, with the various above names properly located thereon. The line represents the trailing edge



of the wing. Then the limit of the above integrals as ϵ approaches zero will be the principle value of this integral.

Now that the limits have been established, the process of integration can be continued. The integrand of equation (3) can be broken into two fractions by adding and subtracting t thus

$$\frac{(t' - t + t)}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} = \frac{t'}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} - \frac{t}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} \quad (4)$$

To integrate the first of the above fractions let

$$\frac{1}{2} t' = t' - t, \text{ then } t = t' - \frac{1}{2} t' dt = \frac{dZ}{2Z}$$

and on substitution the expression becomes:

$$\frac{t' dt}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} = \frac{t' dZ}{2Z \sqrt{1 - \left(t' - \frac{1}{2} t'\right)^2}}$$

which can be reduced to the form

$$\frac{t' dZ}{\sqrt{(1 - t'^2)Z^2 + 2t'Z - 1}}$$

The next step is to take out the quantity $(1 - t'^2)$ from

the radical and add and subtract the fraction $\left(\frac{1}{1 - t'^2}\right)$

which forms a perfect square of three of the terms under the radical sign. The expression now appears as

$$\frac{t' dZ}{\sqrt{(1 - t'^2)Z^2 + \frac{2t'Z}{1 - t'^2} - \left(\frac{t'^2}{(1 - t'^2)^2} - \frac{1}{1 - t'^2}\right)}}$$

which reduces to

$$\frac{t' dZ}{\sqrt{(1 - t'^2) \left(Z + \frac{t'}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2}} \quad (5)$$

The above is now in one of the fundamental forms of the integral calculus which is

$$\int \frac{dv}{\sqrt{v^2 - a^2}} = \log \left(v + \sqrt{v^2 - a^2} \right),$$

and integrating expression (5) by the above formula produces:

$$\frac{t'}{\sqrt{1 - t'^2}} \log \left\{ Z + \frac{t'}{1 - t'^2} + \sqrt{\left(Z + \frac{t'}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2} \right\}$$

Since $\frac{1}{2} t' = t' - t$, then $Z = \frac{t}{1 - t'}$ and substituting this

for Z in the last given expression, the integration of the first fraction is completed. Thus

$$\int \frac{t' dt}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} =$$

$$\frac{t'}{\sqrt{1 - t'^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{t'}{t' - t} + \frac{t'}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{t'}{t' - t} + \frac{t'}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2}} \right\} \quad (6)$$

and

$$\int_{-1+\epsilon}^{+1-\epsilon} \frac{t}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} dt = \frac{t'}{\sqrt{1 - t'^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{t' - t} + \frac{t'}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{t' - t} + \frac{t'}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2}} \right\}$$

Let the above values of the integral when $t = \pm 1$ be T_1 for the sake of brevity, then the expression (as ϵ approaches zero) becomes

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-1+\epsilon}^{+1-\epsilon} \frac{t}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} dt = T_1 - \frac{t'}{\sqrt{1 - t'^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{t' + 1} + \frac{t'}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{t' + 1} + \frac{t'}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1 - t'^2} \right)^2}} \right\}$$

The expression can be further reduced by algebraic manipulation to

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-1+\epsilon}^{+1-\epsilon} \frac{t}{(t' - t) \sqrt{1 - t^2}} dt = T_1 - \frac{t'}{\sqrt{1 - t'^2}} \log \left(\frac{1}{1 - t'^2} \right) \quad (7)$$

Applying the second set of limits to equation (8) gives

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-t} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-t} - \frac{f}{1-t^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-t^2}\right)^2} \right\} - T_2 \quad (8)$$

The limit of the above expression cannot be taken when, as t approaches zero, the fraction $\frac{1}{1-t}$ becomes

infinite. The physical reason for this is that at the point t' is the case of a vortex filament and here the velocity is infinite. This point must, therefore, be neglected, but it cannot be without the effect of the vortex filament on approach from the opposite side ($t' + \epsilon$) is equal and opposite to the limit given in expression (8). Thus, the two effects must cancel one another, hence the limit must be taken as

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left[\int_{t_1}^{t'} + \int_{t'}^{t_2} \right]$$

If this limit is seen, then the point t' which is otherwise unnecessary can be neglected in the final result.

It will be observed that the limits of the second integral, i.e., $t' + \epsilon$ and t_2 as well as $t \rightarrow \epsilon$, are in a region where t is greater than f and hence equation (6) will give the logarithm of a negative number. For values of t greater than f the integral must be modified as follows:

$$\int_{t'}^{t_2} \frac{dt}{(t-f)\sqrt{1-t^2}} = \int_{t'}^{t_2} \frac{-tdt}{(t-f)\sqrt{1-t^2}}$$

The integration of this expression is the same as that

$$\text{of expression (4) except here let } \frac{1}{2} = t - f, \text{ then}$$

$$dt = -\frac{df}{2}$$

If the substitution be carried out, it will be found that the minus sign in the integral disappears and the integral becomes

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{-tdt}{(t-f)\sqrt{1-t^2}} = \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-f^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} \quad (9)$$

Substituting the limits of t as follows

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} - \sqrt{\frac{f}{1-f^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\}$$

and if T_2 is used to denote the value of the integral when $t = t_2$ then

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} - T_2 = T_1$$

Combining the results given in integrals (8) and (10) gives

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} + \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} - T_2 = T_1$$

In the fraction following the logarithm let the numerator and denominator each be multiplied by t , the expression then becomes

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} + \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} - T_2 = T_1$$

If t be allowed now to approach its limit, zero, then results

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left[\int_{t_1}^{t'} + \int_{t'}^{t_2} \right] = T_2 - T_1 + \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-f^2}} \log \frac{2}{f}$$

and since the $\log \frac{2}{f} = \log 1 = 0$ it follows that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left[\int_{t_1}^{t'} + \int_{t'}^{t_2} \right] = T_2 - T_1 \quad (11)$$

Substituting in equation (9) the last set of limits (t_1 and $1 - \epsilon$) gives

$$\int_{t_1}^{1-\epsilon} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} - T_2 = T_1$$

If ϵ approaches its limit and the result is simplified it becomes

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{t_1}^{1-\epsilon} \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} - T_2 = T_1 \quad (12)$$

The value of the first fraction of integral (4) can now

be summed up, hence from expressions (7), (11) and (12) there results

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left[\int_{t_1}^{t'} + \int_{t'}^{t_2} + \int_{t_2}^{t_3} + \int_{t_3}^{t_4} \right] = T_1 - \frac{f}{\sqrt{1-f^2}} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{1-f} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{1-f} - \frac{f}{1-f^2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1-f^2}\right)^2} \right\} - T_2 = 0$$

Therefore, the principle value of

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} \frac{f dt}{(t-f)\sqrt{1-t^2}} = 0$$

The second fraction in expression (4) can be very easily integrated since it is a fundamental form as it stands, hence

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} \frac{-tdt}{(t-f)\sqrt{1-t^2}} = \arcsin t,$$

and the integral becomes infinite for only two of the points of Fig. 1, i.e., -1 and $+1$ the principle value of the above integral then is

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \int_{-1}^{+1} \frac{-tdt}{(t-f)\sqrt{1-t^2}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left[\arcsin(-t) - \arcsin(-t+f) \right] = \arcsin(1) - \arcsin(-1) = 0 - \pi = -\pi$$

The principle value of the complete integral may now be written as

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} \frac{f dt}{(X-X')\sqrt{1-t^2}} - \pi X$$

Equation (2) on substitution of $-t$ becomes

$$w = -\frac{\Gamma_2}{2\pi b} (-\alpha) = \frac{\Gamma_2}{2b}$$

The last equation is usually written in many aerodynamic textbooks directly following integral (2). If the above discussion were included in aerodynamic textbooks, it would greatly simplify the subject for the average engineering student. The writer feels that most attention should be paid to this phase of the work.

TECHNICAL PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

N.A.C.A. Technical Note No. 327, Tests of Four Rolling Type Airfoils in the Twenty-Four Propeller Research Tunnel, by Fred E. Wick.

N.A.C.A. Technical Note No. 318, Full Scale Investigation of the Drag of a Wing Submer, by Fred E. Wick.

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General Electric Review paper, The Welding of Ferrous and Non-Ferrous Metals by the Atomic-hydrogen Flame, by N. A. Whitman, Research Laboratory, General Electric Company.

Bureau of Standards Research Paper No. 77, A Constant-Shift Indicator for the Dunsen-Blanchard Type Radio-beam, by H. Diamond, Radio Engineer, and F. W. Truxton, Physicist.

Bureau of Standards Research Paper No. 78, Relative Visibility of Luminous Flashes from Neon Lamps and from Incandescent Lamps With and Without Red Filters, by J. Chappin, Strickerburg, Associate Physicist, and J. E. Riden, Junior Engineer.

Bureau of Standards Flight Practice Recommendations R21-29, Sheet Six.

An Announcement

In the forthcoming issues of AVIATION, the material formerly published in the Aeronautical Engineering Section will be distributed in the form of articles of the magazine weekly instead of appearing monthly or bi-monthly. This policy has been adopted mainly in an effort to provide our readers with a diversity of material in each weekly issue. It will enable us also to publish a greater quantity of technical material and will provide articles of this type in each issue rather than in only a few.

The remaining articles in "Analysis of the Wing and Other Intermediate Structures" by Leo Freilich and Arnold Tishler of the Faber Aircraft Corporation, as well as other technical material that we planned to publish in the engineering section will appear among the feature articles in early issues.—Ed

ESTIMATION OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF Modified Airfoils

By SHUTEWELL OBER
Manufacturing Institute of Technology

IN THE design of airplane wings it is often convenient to change somewhat the airfoils of existing aerobal sections, in order to increase or decrease the thickness slightly for structural reasons. This may be carried out in two ways, either all ordinates may be multiplied by a satisfactory fraction, or the median line may be kept constant and the half ordinates varied. The first method keeps the wing of the most general type, i.e., convex, flat, or concave, unchanged, while the second changes its shape from concave to convex as thickness is increased. Perhaps the first is the more usual and simpler method of modification.

In the case if the aerodynamic characteristics of the original wing are known, those of the changed section may be estimated with reasonable accuracy if the change in thickness is not excessive, and the new thickness does not exceed 15 per cent. The method depends on the theories of Dr. Max Munk for the determination of the angle of zero lift,^{1,2} and experimental results of the variation of drag.

First, the angle of zero lift measured from the chord line varies directly as the thickness. Second, the slope of the lift curve is independent of the thickness up to the limit of thickness assessed. Therefore the lift at zero degree is proportional to the thickness

At 0°

$$K_L = K_{L0} \times \frac{t}{t_0}$$

At any angle α $K_L = K_{L0} \times \frac{t}{t_0} \frac{dK_L}{d\alpha}$

K_{L0} = lift coefficient of original wing at 0°
 t_0 = thickness of original wing
 t = thickness of modified wing

$\frac{dK_L}{d\alpha}$ = slope of lift coefficient curve

This expression gives the new lift for angles where
W.C.A. Technical Note No. 115 and Technical Report No. 2-15.

the lift curve may reasonably be considered a straight line. The effect of change of thickness on the maximum lift coefficient is less certain. A fair estimate is to increase the K_{L0} 0.00015 for each 0.01 increase in thickness ratio (t/t_0).

The best method of computing the change in drag requires the use of the familiar separation of the airfoil drag into suction and profile drag. At any angle of attack the new suction drag can be determined from the new value of K_L and the profile drag may be considered proportional to the thickness

$$\text{At any } \alpha \quad K_{D0} = K_{D0} \times \frac{t}{t_0}$$

$$K_{D0} = \frac{128 K_L^2}{R}$$

$$K_D = K_{D0} + K_{Dp}$$

K_{D0} = profile drag coefficient of new section

K_{Dp} = profile drag coefficient of original airfoil at α°

K_{Dp} = induced drag coefficient

The above methods give good approximations of lift and drag. Unfortunately, there seems to be no simple method of finding the change in center of pressure as well. The reason is that the moment directs more and more from its theoretical value as the center of the airfoil is curved. For small changes in thickness the following expression may be used, at equal values of K_L not equal angles,

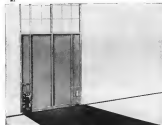
$$\frac{C.P. - 0.27}{C.P. + 0.27} = \frac{t}{t_0}$$

$C.P.$ = new location of center of pressure as a fraction of chord

$C.P._0$ = original center of pressure at same K_L

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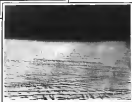
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What's the key to good Airport Lighting?

By E. J. DAILEY
Lighting Sales Manager
Graybar Electric Company

This is Number 1 of a series of eleven columns whose purpose it is to reduce the information on airport lighting to its simplest terms.

1. What is the "A-B-C" of good Airport Lighting?

(A) The properly lighted field is easily found at night. (B) It is easily identified. (C) It is as easy and safe to land upon by night as by day.

2. How are these conditions best achieved?

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3. In more detail, what is the specific meaning of the seven requirements?

The beacon which locates the field, should rotate a beam of 180/000 candlepower. White or yellow light to mark the visible part of the field, with green locating beam approaches and red indicating hazards are nec-



every. Hangers should be flood-lighted to aid the pilot in judging height. The height of the "yellow,"

or overhead beacons, is estimated by use of a narrow beam searchlight.

The visual direction indicator must be visible from any direction. And finally, field floodlighting should adequately illuminate the field, but without blinding glare to the pilot.

4. What is the most important general fact about Airport Lighting?

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5. How may correct application be secured?

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Figure Mail Plane and Bakelite laminated pulleys used for its control cables. Photo by Under Airplane Photo Co., Inc., Garden City, N.Y.

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